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ABSTRACT

This document contains a reprint of the 1916 "The Social Studies in Secondary Education: A Six-Year Program Adapted Both to the 6-3-3 and the 8-4 Plans of Organization and Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association" widely believed to be the most important document in the history of citizenship education in the United States. It legitimated the term "social studies" to designate formal citizenship education and placed squarely in the field all of those subjects that were believed to contribute to that end. While recognizing the importance of history and the social sciences as contributing to citizenship education, the Committee's report recognized that citizenship education is something more than mastery of separate disciplines. It recognized the study of social problems as a necessary part of the education of citizens, and outlined a content for the social studies that was widely adopted and has remained remarkably unchanged to the present. This book includes annotations by Murry R. Nelson, the editor of the present document, on the 1916 report. Commentaries include: (1) "The Social Contexts of the Committee on Social Studies Report of 1916" (Murry M. Nelson); and (2) "Thomas Jesse Jones--Doing God's Work and the 1916 Report" (Stephen T. Correia). The book also contains a 35-page select annotated bibliography from the ERIC database on social studies reform. The table of contents of the 1915 report on "The Teaching of Community Civics" is included in an appendix. (Author/DK)

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The Social Studies in Secondary Education

A Reprint of the Seminal 1916 Report with Annotations and Commentaries

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Edited and
Annotated by

Murry R. Nelson

ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/
Social Science Education

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CONTENTS

Dedication v

Editor's Preface vi

Introduction by Dr. Shirley H. Engle vii

I. Reprint of the 1916 Report: *The Social Studies in Secondary Education* 1

II. Annotations on the 1916 Report by Murry R. Nelson 61

III. Commentaries

1-The Social Contexts of the Committee on Social Studies Report of 1916 by Murry R. Nelson 71

2-Thomas Jesse Jones—Doing God's Work and the 1916 Report by Stephen T. Correia 93

IV. Select Annotated Bibliography from the ERIC Database on Social Studies Reform by Vickie J. Schlene 121

Appendix: Table of Contents of the 1915 Report on *The Teaching of Community Civics* 159

About the Editor and Authors 161

Dedication

This book is dedicated to Dr. Shirley H. Engle, a great teacher, scholar, colleague, and friend. He was born April 16, 1907, and he died April 7, 1994.

Dr. Shirley H. Engle was a Professor Emeritus of Education at Indiana University, where he served on the faculty of Indiana University's School of Education for 31 years. In 1959, Professor Engle received the Frederick Bachman Lieber Memorial Award for Distinguished Teaching. In 1968, he was a founder of Indiana University's Social Studies Development Center and served as the Chairman of the SSDC's Policy Committee until his retirement in 1977. In 1970, Dr. Engle served as President of the National Council for the Social Studies.

Dr. Engle contributed notably to scholarship and leadership in social studies education. His most significant article, "Decision Making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction" was published originally in *Social Education*. This article was one of 50 selected in 1987 for publication in an anthology of the best articles to appear in *Social Education* during the journal's first 50 years (*Voices of Social Education*, 1937-1987, edited by Daniel Roselle and published by Macmillian in association with the National Council for the Social Studies, 1987). Dr. Engle's most recent book, written with Anna Ochoa, was published in 1988, *Education for Democratic Citizenship*.

Throughout his long career, which continued actively during the years of his so-called retirement, Dr. Engle was a strong advocate for social studies and the education of citizens capable of acting effectively and responsibly in a democracy. He presented ideas with integrity and vigor and won the respect of friends and foes for his firm commitment to the improvement of education for democratic citizenship.

Shirley H. Engle will be remembered with respect and affection. This was a man who cared deeply about others. His positive influence on the lives of so many students, colleagues, and friends is the legacy we have from Shirley H. Engle.

John J. Patrick, Professor of Education,
Director of the Social Studies Development Center, and
Director of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/
Social Science Education at Indiana University

Editor's Preface

The 1916 Report on the Social Studies continues to captivate and influence social studies educators more than 75 years from the time of its issuance. This volume reprints that storied report in order to make it accessible to more than just a small group of scholars. The report is reprinted in its entirety with minor changes. First, all internal page references have been changed to conform to this new edition's pages. Second, there are no page headers as there were on each of the pages of the 1916 report. Third, italicized print in the original is printed in boldface. Finally, my annotations are noted in this text by letters in order to avoid confusion with the original numbered footnotes still contained herein.

The introduction by Shirley Engle is brief, but sets a tone for the reading of the volume. Following the report, I try to put the report in a sociohistorical context. Stephen Correia then presents a view of Thomas Jesse Jones, the Chairman of the 1916 Committee on the Social Studies.

This volume owes its publication to many people. John Patrick, Director of the Social Studies Development Center and ERIC/ChESS was supportive and encouraging of this project from inception to completion. Walter Schultz, Secretary of the Foundations of Social Studies SIG of the National Council for the Social Studies, and James Barth, of that same group supported this project early on and encouraged support from the NCSS SIG. Darla Homan, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, The Pennsylvania State University, organized and typed the manuscript. Dianne Common, the head of that department, supported Ms. Homan's work on this project.

It is hoped that these essays and the annotations to the report will provide some insight for greater understanding and appreciation of the 1916 Report.

Murry R. Nelson
Professor of Education
The Pennsylvania State University

Introduction

The 1916 Report of the Committee on Social Studies is widely believed to be the most important document in the long history of citizenship education in this country. It legitimated the term "social studies" to designate formal citizenship education and placed squarely in the field all of those subjects that were believed to contribute to that end. While recognizing the importance of history and the social sciences as contributing to citizenship education, the Committee's Report recognized that citizenship education is something more than mere mastery of separate disciplines. It recognized the study of social problems as a necessary part of the education of citizens. It outlined a content for the social studies which was widely adopted and has remained remarkably unchanged to this day. Even as I write in 1993, the argument which the Report engendered over what constitutes appropriate education for citizens rages as never before. The Report seems rather to have inflamed the issues over the nature of citizenship education than to have settled them.

The Report is itself filled with inconsistencies. For instance, while embracing Dewey's ideas on education whereby the impetus for learning rested in building on the day to day experiences of children, the Committee ended up proposing a curriculum in which the driving force would be the disciplines, especially history. Furthermore, the importance which the Committee gave to the study of social problems was based on a positivist notion of the nature of a social problem which has since been abandoned by most social scientists as Barth and Shermis have so ably demonstrated. For the Committee, social problems were assumed to be solvable with the application of knowledge from the social sciences; the student needed only to be taught the answers which were known to social scientists. In contrast, social problems today are seen as vastly complex entities. The resolutions involve not only facts, but value judgments concerning such matters as fairness, justice, equity, etc. The solutions to problems are never perfect or free of controversy. The context in which a problem exists is continually changing. The prejudice and experience of individual students is usually a part of the problem; in any case, students are deeply involved in its resolution and they cannot merely be taught the correct answer.

The Report of the Committee of 1916 seemed to open up more wounds in the social studies armor than it closed. We have a mighty controversy on our hands today by simply asking the question, what are (or is) the social studies? There is a spate of commissions and task forces studying this question with a variety of conclusions. There is a deep philosophical split within the profession between the essentialism of Edgar Wesley and the pragmatism of John Dewey. Was the Committee of 1916 proposing a curriculum for mastery of social knowledge or for challenging students to think, criticize, even reject, or occasion, the conventional wisdom of the day?

It is into such a maelstrom of controversy that Murry Nelson dares to venture. He does so with insight and clarity. I can but hope that this long-needed critique will contribute to resolving the problems that continue to plague the study of citizenship and the field of social studies.

Shirley H. Engle
Professor Emeritus of Education
Indiana University
January 8, 1993

I

Reprint of the 1916 Report: *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

BULLETIN, 1916, No. 28

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

A SIX-YEAR PROGRAM ADAPTED BOTH TO THE
6-3-3 AND THE 8-4 PLANS OF ORGANIZATION

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL STUDIES OF THE
COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY
EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

COMPILED BY

ARTHUR WILLIAM DUNN

Secretary of the Committee

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1916

CONTENTS.

Page.

Preface 6
Membership of Committee on Social Studies 7
Membership of Reviewing Committee of the Commission 8

Part I. Introduction:

1. Definition of the social studies 9
2. Aims of the social studies 9
3. Point of view of the committee 10
    Socialization of social studies 10
    Principles and illustrations 10
    One controlling principle throughout the report 10
    Continuity of elementary and secondary education 11
4. General outline of social studies for secondary schools 11
5. Cycle plan of organization 12
6. Differentiation of courses 13
7. Adaptation to 6-3-3 and 8-4 plans 13

Part II. Social studies for the seventh, eighth, and ninth years:

(A) Administrative features 14
    1. Alternative programs 14
    2. Organization of social studies in the years VII and VIII 15
    3. Time allotment for civics in years VII-IX 16
(B) Geography and history in years VII and VIII 17
(C) Civics in the years VII-IX 21
    1. Special report on community civics 21
        Meaning of "community" 21
        Aims of community civics 21
        Content of community civics 22
        Methods of community civics 22
            Social facts upon which the method is based 22
            Three steps in teaching 23
    2. Ninth-year civics 23
        Amplification of national aspects 24
        Amplification of world interests 25
        Civic relations of vocational life 25
    3. Adaptation of community civics to rural conditions 27
    4. Relation of civics to history 30
    5. Summary 32

Part III. Social studies for the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years:

(A) Administrative features 33
    1. General outline of courses 33
    2. Time allotment and minimum essentials 33

(B) History 34
I. General statement of principles of organization 34
1. Reasons for proposed organization 34
2. Organization of subject matter within courses 35
(1) "Topical" or "problem" basis 35
(2) "Elements of welfare" as organizing principle 35
3. Important aims in teaching history 36
(1) American history 36
(2) Study of nations 37
(3) Latin America and the Orient 37
II. Detailed discussion of principles underlying history instruction 38
1. Position of history in the curriculum 38
2. College versus life requirements 38
3. History offered versus history taken 38
4. The tests of the history course 39
Prof. Mace's statement 39
Prof. Robinson's statement 40
5. Two questions at issue 40
(1) What is meant by functioning in the present 41
Sociological interpretation 41
Pedagogical interpretation 41
Illustrations 42
(2) How shall the history course be organized 45
Influence of tradition 45
Inadequacy of chronology as a basis 45
Effect of adopting the pedagogical interpretation 45
Practical difficulties of reorganization 48
(C) Problems of American democracy 49
1. Conflicting claims for the twelfth year 49
2. Relation to preceding courses 50
3. Concrete problems in varied aspects 50
4. Illustrations 51
5. Summary of reasons for proposed course 53
6. Experiment urged 53

Part IV. Standards—Preparation of the teacher—Availability of text material:

I. Standards by which to test methods 54
II. Preparation of the teacher 55
1. In the high school 56
2. In teacher-training schools 56
3. In colleges and universities 56
4. In service 56
III. Availability of text material 57

PREFACE.

The committee issues this report with the conviction that the secondary school teachers of social studies have a remarkable opportunity to improve the citizenship of the land. This conviction is based upon the fact that the million and a third secondary school pupils constitute probably the largest and most impressionable group in the country that can be directed to a serious and systematic effort, through both study and practice, to acquire the social spirit. If the two and a half million pupils of the seventh and eighth grades are included in the secondary group, according to the six-and-six plan, this opportunity will be very greatly increased.[a]

The committee interprets this opportunity as a responsibility which can be realized only by the development in the pupil of a constructive attitude in the consideration of all social conditions. In facing the increasing complexity of society, it is most important that the youth of the land be steadied by an unwavering faith in humanity and by an appreciation of the institutions which have contributed to the advancement of civilization.

The following report is the result of three years of continuous inquiry by the committee whose membership is given on page 7. This committee as a whole has met at various times in each of these years for sessions of one or two days each, subcommittees have met on other occasions, and individual members designated by the committee have given prolonged service and made specific contributions to the general result. It has corresponded widely in search of suggestions and criticisms, and has conferred with many persons not members of the committee in various parts of the country. It has met in conference with representatives of the American Historical Association and the American Political Science Association. In short, the committee has sought for every available source of suggestion, criticism, and contribution of material that would aid it in formulating and explaining its conclusions.[b]

In 1914 a preliminary report was prepared by the chairman of the committee and printed by the Bureau of Education in Bulletin, 1914, No. 41, together with other preliminary reports of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.[c] The report as presented herewith was compiled by Arthur William Dunn, who for the past year has been the secretary of the committee. Mr. Dunn's pioneer service and long experience in civic education enabled him to make a very valuable contribution to the deliberations of the committee. His connection with the United States Bureau of Education as Special Agent in Civic Education has also given the committee unusual opportunity to keep in touch with the experience and thought of the entire country. The committee owes much to the cordial cooperation of the Bureau both in the preparation and in the publication of the report.

In 1915 the United States Bureau of Education published a bulletin on "The Teaching of Community Civics" (Bulletin, 1915, No. 23).[d] This bulletin was prepared by J. Lynn Barnard, F. W. Carrier, Arthur W. Dunn, and

Clarence D. Kingsley, who were constituted a special committee of the Committee on Social Studies for the purpose. This bulletin, which is referred to in the body of the present report, should be considered, therefore, as an integral part of the Report of the Committee on Social Studies.

The committee is fully conscious that available data derived from actual experience are not adequate for final judgments. It has endeavored at all points to avoid any suggestion of finality. It believes, however, that its report is more than a mere expression of personal opinion, in that the principles that it endeavors to formulate and illustrate are derived from an apparently clear and definite trend in actual practice.

A summary of this report has been approved by the Reviewing Committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. This approval does not commit every member of the Reviewing Committee individually to every statement and every implied educational doctrine. It does, however, mean essential agreement as a committee with the general recommendations. On the basis of this summary, the Reviewing Committee has authorized the publication of the report by the Bureau of Education as one of the reports of the commission.

THOMAS JESSE JONES,
Chairman Committee on Social Studies.

CLARENCE D. KINGSLEY,
Chairman Reviewing Committee.

THE COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL STUDIES.

Thomas Jesse Jones, **chairman**, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.
Arthur William Dunn, **secretary**, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.
W. A. Aery, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.
J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia, Pa.
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F. L. Boyden, Principal, High School, Deerfield, Mass.
E. C. Branson, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N.C.
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F. W. Carrier, Somerville High School, Somerville, Mass.
Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia, Pa.
Frank P. Goodwin, Woodward High School, Cincinnati, Ohio.
W. J. Hamilton, Superintendent of Schools, Two Rivers, Wis.
Blanche C. Hazard, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.
S. B. Howe, High School, Newark, N.J.
Clarence D. Kingsley, State High School Inspector, Boston, Mass.
J. Herbert Low, Manual Training High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.
William H. Mace, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y.
William T. Morrey, Bushwick High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.
John Pettibone, High School, New Milford, Conn.
James Harvey Robinson, Columbia University, New York City.
William A. Wheatley, Superintendent of Schools, Middletown, Conn.

THE REVIEWING COMMITTEE.

(The Reviewing Committee consists of 26 members, of whom 16 are chairmen of committees and 10 are members at large.)

Chairman of the Commission and of the Reviewing Committee:
Clarence D. Kingsley, State High School Inspector, Boston, Mass.

Members at large:
Hon. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
Thomas H. Briggs, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
Alexander Inglis, Assistant Professor of Education, in charge of Secondary Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
Henry Neumann, Ethical Culture School, New York City.
William Orr, Senior Educational Secretary, International Y. M. C. A. Committee, 104 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York City.
William B. Owen, Principal, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.
Edward O. Sisson, Commissioner of Education, Boise, Idaho.
Joseph S. Stewart, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.
Milo H. Stuart, Principal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind.
H. L. Terry, State High School Inspector, Madison, Wis.

Chairmen of committees:
Administration of High Schools—Charles Hughes Johnston, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
Agriculture—A. V. Storm, Professor of Agricultural Education, University of Minnesota, St. Paul, Minn.
Ancient Languages—Walter Eugene Foster, Stuyvesant High School, New York City.
Art Education—Henry Turner Bailey, Newton, Mass.
Articulation of High School and College—Clarence D. Kingsley, State High School Inspector, Boston, Mass.
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Manual Arts—Wilson H. Henderson, Extension Division, University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, Wis.
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Modern Languages—Edward Manley, Englewood High School, Chicago, Ill.
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Social Studies—Thomas Jesse Jones, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.
Vocational Guidance—Frank M. Leavitt, Professor of Industrial Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.

PART I—INTRODUCTION.

1. **Definition of the social studies.**—The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups.[f]

2. **Aims of the social studies.**—The social studies differ from other studies by reason of their social content rather than in social aim; for the key note of modern education is "social efficiency," and instruction in all subjects should contribute to this end. Yet, from the nature of their content, the social studies afford peculiar opportunities for the training of the individual as a member of society. Whatever their value from the point of view of personal culture, unless they contribute directly to the cultivation of social efficiency on the part of the pupil they fail in their most important function. They should accomplish this end through the development of an appreciation of the nature and laws of social life, a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of social groups, and the intelligence and the will to participate effectively in the promotion of the social well-being.

More specifically, the social studies of the American high school should have for their conscious and constant purpose the cultivation of good citizenship. We may identify the "good citizen" of a neighborhood with the "thoroughly efficient member" of that neighborhood; but he will be characterized, among other things, by a loyalty and a sense of obligation of his city, State, and Nation as political units. Again, "society" may be interpreted to include the human race. Humanity is bigger than any of its divisions. The social studies should cultivate a sense of membership in the "world community," with all the sympathies and sense of justice that this involves as among the different divisions of human society. The first step, however, toward a true "neighborliness" among nations must be a realization of national ideals, national efficiency, national loyalty, national self-respect, just as real neighborliness among different family groups depends upon the solidarity, the self-respect, and the loyalty to be found within each of the component families.

High national ideals and an intelligent and genuine loyalty to them should thus be a specific aim of the social studies in American high schools.

3. **The point of view of the committee.**—(1) The committee adheres to the view that it was appointed, not to "obtain justice" for a group of social studies as against other groups, or for one social study as against others, but to consider wherein such studies might be made to contribute most effectively to the purposes of secondary education.[g] It believes that the social studies require "socialization" quite as much as other studies, and that this is of greater moment than the number of social studies offered or the number of hours assigned to each.

The subject of civics may be taken to illustrate this point. Its avowed purpose is to train for citizenship. The various attempts to secure a more perfect fulfillment of this purpose by increasing the quantity offered, by making the subject required instead of elective, by transferring it from last year to first year of the high school or vice verse, by introducing it in the elementary course of study, by shifting the emphasis from the National Government to municipal government—such attempts have been more or less mechanical and superficial. Unless the subject matter and the methods of instruction are adapted to the pupil's immediate needs of social growth, such attempts avail little. What is true of civics is also true of the other social studies, such as history and economics.

(2) The committee has refrained from offering detailed outlines of courses, on the ground that they tend to fix instruction in stereotyped forms inconsistent with a real socializing purpose. The selection of topics and the organization of subject matter should be determined in each case by immediate needs.[h] The attempt has been, therefore, to establish certain principles, to illustrate these as far as possible by examples from actual practice, and to stimulate initiative on the part of teachers and school administrators in testing proposed methods or in judicious experiments of their own.

> No sensible teacher of history asks how many facts he is to teach. No two teachers—if good ones—would teach the same number of facts or just the same facts to the same pupils or class, and much less to different classes. No sensible teacher asks what kind of facts he shall teach, expecting to receive in answer a tabulation of his material. He knows that general rules accompanied by suitable illustrations are the only useful answer to these questions. (Elementary course of study in geography, history, and civics, Indianapolis.)[i]

(3) One principle the committee has endeavored to keep before it consistently throughout this report because of its fundamental character. It is contained in the following quotation from Prof. Dewey:

> We are continually uneasy about the things we adults know, and are afraid the child will never learn them unless they are drilled into him by instruction before he has any intellectual use for them. If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy, and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future, transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.

The high-school course has heretofore been determined too largely by supposed future needs and too little by present needs and past experience. The important fact is not that the pupil is getting ready to live, but that he is living, and in immediate need of such mental and social nourishment and training as will enable him to adjust himself to his present social environment and conditions. By the very processes of present growth he will make the best possible provision for the future. This does not mean that educational processes should have no reference to the future. It does not mean, to use a concrete illustration, that a boy should be taught nothing about voting until he is 21 and about to cast his first ballot. It means merely that such instruction should be given at the psychological and social moment when the boy's interests are such as to make the instruction function effectively in his processes of growth.[j] A distinction should be made between the "needs of present growth" and immediate, objective utility. As a boy's mental and social horizon broadens with the processes of education, he will become inquisitive about facts and relations perhaps long before he has direct use for them in the affairs of life. The best question that can be asked in class is the question that the pupil himself asks because he wants to know, and not the question the teacher asks because he thinks the pupil some time in the future ought to know.

(4) For effective social training in the high school more consideration must be given to its organic continuity with the work of the elementary school in the same field. Opinion differs as to the grades when the social studies as such should be introduced, especially in the case of civics. This question is beyond the scope of this committee's consideration, except in its relation to the seventh and eighth years. These years are now in some places included with the ninth year in the junior high school, and must, therefore, be considered in any plan for the reorganization of secondary education. But even where the junior high-school plan is not adopted, the foundations of secondary education must be laid in the years preceding the present high school.

4. **General outline of social studies for secondary schools.**—Assuming that provision has been made for the social aspect of education in Grades I-VI of the elementary school, the following general plan of social studies is proposed for the years VII-XII:[k]

Junior cycle (years VII-IX):
  Geography.
    European history.
    American history.
    Civics.
Senior cycle (years X-XII):
  European history.
  American history.
  Problems of democracy—social, economic, and political.

5. **The "cycle" plan of organization—two three-year cycles preceded by an earlier six-year cycle.**—From the foregoing general outline it will be seen that the course of social studies proposed for the years VII-IX constitutes a cycle to be followed by a similar cycle in the years X-XII, and presumably preceded by another similar cycle in the six elementary grades. This grouping coincides roughly with the physiological periods of adolescence, but is based chiefly upon the practical consideration that large numbers of children complete their schooling with the sixth grade and another large contingent with the eighth and ninth grades.[1] The course recommended in this report aims to provide a comprehensive, and in a sense complete, course of social study for each period. Those pupils who continue through the third period cover the same cycle provided for in the first and second periods, but with broader horizon, new relations, and more intensive study.

The Philadelphia course of study now in preparation and soon to be published, and the Indianapolis course of study described in Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education, illustrate with variations the cycle organization of the six elementary grades. Within this period the pupils get at least some picture of the development of civilization as typified in the customs, historic personages and dramatic events of ancient and modern nations. They also acquire the simpler elements of American history from the period of exploration to the present time. This historical study is made in close relation with geographical study. Civic and social relations, beginning with the simple relations of home life in the first grade and gradually including the elemental relations of the larger community life, form a continuous phase of the work. In the sixth year of the Philadelphia course emphasis is placed upon economic or vocational relations, largely through a concrete study of occupations. In the Indianapolis course a similar though perhaps less intensive study of occupations is made, chiefly in connection with geography (general and local) and with especial emphasis in the fourth, fifth, and sixth years; while in the sixth year a somewhat systematic though elementary study is made of the more important "elements of community welfare."

With such a course of study, the pupil who leaves school after completing the sixth grade will have acquired some experience with practically the whole range of social studies—history (both ancient and modern, European and American); government in its relations to community welfare; economics in its simpler occupational relations, and also on the side of saving, thrift, conservation; and even sociology in very elementary and concrete terms. Elementary as the course is, and inadequate as it may be from the point of view of the pupil's future social efficiency, it is doubtless all that he can well assimilate at his stage of mental and social growth.

It will now require only a glance at the outline of courses suggested for the years VII-IX and X-XII on pages 11, 14 and 33 of this report to make apparent without further discussion the completeness with which the cycle organization is provided for.

6. **Differentiation of courses.**—The course of study outlined is flexible and permits of differentiation to any extent necessary to meet the needs of characteristic groups of pupils. It is an open question how far such differentiation is desirable, especially in the years VII-IX. It is a fallacy, for example, to imagine that the children of native-born Americans need civic education any less than the children of immigrants; or that the pupils of a school in a purely residential suburb require instruction in industrial history or vocational civics any less than the pupils of a school in an industrial district. But the scope and emphasis of such courses may well vary in the different cases. It is conceivable that in a class of immigrant children more emphasis might be given to American history and less to European history than in a class of native children. In both European and American history the selection of topics for emphasis should, within certain limits at least, be made to meet industrial or other specific needs. As suggested on pages 27-30, community civics needs special adaptation to rural conditions and requirements.

The committee can not emphasize too strongly its belief in the desirability of such careful adjustment of courses to local and current circumstances. It is believed that the flexibility of the course of social studies offered and the principles suggested for the organization of subject matter (see especially under the section on History, pp. 33-37), lend themselves readily to such adjustment.m

7. **Adaptation to the 8-4 and 6-3-3 plans of organization.**—The validity of the committee's recommendations and suggestions is not dependent upon the adoption of the junior and senior high-school organization. There is only one point at which the adoption or nonadoption of this organization would seem to make any difference in the completeness with which the course of social studies herein proposed for the years VII-IX could be carried out. If it is true that under the 8-4 organization more pupils are likely to leave school at the end of the eighth year than would be the case under the 6-3-3 organization, it would mean simply that a larger percentage of pupils would fail to complete the cycle of social studies provided for the years VII-IX.

The committee believes, however, that the very nature of its proposed course in civics in the ninth year will tend to keep in school, even under the 8-4 organization, many of those to whom the traditional history courses usually given in the ninth year would offer no inducement to remain. However, it is partly to meet the needs of those who, under either organization, leave school at the end of the eighth year that the committee urgently recommends the inclusion of an elementary course in community civics in that year. This course, if planned with that end in view, will consummate a complete, though necessarily abbreviated, cycle in the years VII-VIII. Let it be repeated, however, that one of the chief purposes of both eighth and ninth year civics should be to provide the pupil with a motive for the continuation of his education.

PART II.—SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE SEVENTH, EIGHTH, AND NINTH YEARS.

(A) ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES.

Geography, history, and **civics** are the social studies that find a proper place in the seventh, eighth, and ninth years. The geography should be closely correlated with the history and civics, and should be thoroughly socialized. The history should include European as well as American history. The civics should be of the "community civics" type (see pp. 21-32, following). In addition, it is desirable to emphasize the social aspects of other studies, such as hygiene or other science, and even arithmetic. (For a description of "community arithmetic" see "Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis," Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education, pp. 23-26.)[n]

1. **Alternative programs for years VII-IX.**—Opinion and practice vary as to the organization of the social studies in these three years. It is the belief of the committee that the organization should be adapted to local circumstances, and that no one plan should be recommended as best for every case. The following alternative plans are suggested; it is not intended, however, to preclude the possibility of other adjustments that local conditions may require.

Seventh year:
(1) Geography—1/2 year.
European history—1/2 year. } These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel through the year.
Civics—taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both.
Or, (2) European history—1 year.
Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history.
Civics—taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both.

Eighth year:
American history—1/2 year.
Civics—1/2 year. } These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel through the year.
Geography—taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the above subjects.

Ninth year:
(1) Civics: Continuing the civics of the preceding year, but with more emphasis upon State, national, and world aspects (see pp. 23-26.)—1/2 year.
Civics: Economic and vocational aspects (see pp. 25-26.)—1/2 year.
History: Much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses.
Or, (2) Civics—economic and vocational
Economic history. } 1 year, in sequence or parallel.

2. **Organization of social studies in the seventh and eighth years.**—The alternative programs given above suggest three methods of organizing the social studies in the seventh and eighth years.

(a) By the first method, the three social studies run parallel to each other, with more or less direct dependence upon each other, and with a good deal of one subject taught as an aspect of the other two. This method is exemplified in the Indianapolis schools, according to their course of study in geography, history, and civics published in 1914, and explained in Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United States Bureau of Education. In the seventh year geography occupies three periods a week throughout the year, alternating with European history on the other two days. Civics is taught only as a phase of the geography, history, and other subjects, with more or less attention to it in the opening exercises. In the eighth year United States history occupies three periods a week, alternating with civics on the other two days. Geography is taught in this year only as a factor in the other two subjects. It should be said in passing that while civics does not appear as a distinct subject in the Indianapolis schools until the eighth year, it is systematically taught as an aspect of other subjects throughout the elementary grades beginning with the first.

> The aim in the Indianapolis elementary schools seems to be to make of education, not a process of instruction in a variety of subjects, but a process of living, of growth, during which the various relations of life are unfolded—civic, geographical, historical, ethical, vocational, etc. In the first grade, for example, the pupil does not even study "English" or "language"; he merely does things, and talks about things, and hears and tells stories about things, the teacher alone being conscious that she is giving the child his first organized lessons in civic life, as well as in the use of the English language. (Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis, Bulletin, 1915, No. 17, United State Bureau of Education, p. 9.)

Even in the eighth year, where civics appears as a separate "subject," alternating throughout the year with American history, the coordination is so close (in the hands of a skillful teacher) that the pupils are hardly conscious that they are studying two "subjects."[0] They are rather studying certain phenomena of life in two aspects—historical and civic.

It is this aim that gives to the Indianapolis plan its chief distinction. It is perhaps an ideal aim. Its accomplishment, however, requires skillful teaching. It is only fair to say that even in Indianapolis there are principals and teachers who prefer the plan which existed in that city prior to the adoption of the present plan a year or two ago, and who, indeed, still follow it. This plan is next described.

(b) By this second plan the social studies are taken up in sequence. Civics occupies the entire attention (so far as the social studies are concerned) five days in the week, in the last half of the eighth year. It is preceded by the courses in history, and these in turn by geography. Of course geography also appears as an element in the history work, European and

American. More or less civics instruction may be given prior to the last half of the eighth grade as a phase of history, geography, and other subjects.

The chief advantage claimed for this plan is the concentration and continuity of interest and attention. It is perhaps particularly important that attention be concentrated upon civics at the time just before the pupils enter high school or leave school altogether. This last argument may doubtless lose some of its force under the Junior High School plan of organization, if it be assumed that the latter would keep pupils in school at least a year longer and would provide further civic training in that year. At all events, of the two plans described, the second is perhaps more likely to be effective in the hands of the great majority of teachers, and especially of those who are inexperienced.

(c) A third general plan of organization, which admits of variations, is characterized by the introduction of civics as a distinct subject in the lower grades for one or more periods a week, and its continuation in increasing amount until the climax is reached in the seventh and eighth years. A plan of this kind is now being developed in Philadelphia. The advantages claimed for it are the cumulative effect of continuous civics instruction through the pupil's early years, and the definiteness secured by fixing attention upon the subject as such, even if for only one or two periods a week, instead of depending upon the interest and skill of the teacher to develop the subject incidentally to the teaching of other subjects.

Objections that have been raised to this plan are (1) the multiplication of "subjects" in the elementary curriculum; (2) the difficulty of maintaining interest and securing effective results from subjects taught one or two periods a week; (3) the belief that the very fact of designating a few periods a week for the study of "civics" would tend to the neglect of the civic aspects of instruction in other subjects. Data are not available to prove the validity of these objections.

3. **Time allotment for civics in years VII-IX.**—An objection has been raised to the amount of civics recommended for the years VII-IX on the ground that it is out of proportion to the time available for the social studies. This objection appears to be due in part to a misconception of the meaning of the term, and of the scope of the work intended to be included under it. The term "community civics" has arisen (it was not invented by this committee) to distinguish the new type of civics from the traditional "civil government," to which the name civics was also applied. Unfortunately, the term has been interpreted by many as applying to a purely local study. From what is said on pages 21 and 23, it should be clear that the committee is not recommending a course, even in the eighth year, that is restricted to a study of "the pupil's own town"; and much less that it is recommending two consecutive years of such study. The proposed ninth year course (see pp. 23-27) is "civics" in that it is a specific course of training for citizenship; it is "community civics" solely in the sense of maintaining the point of view, the spirit, the general method, though not the same con-

tent in detail, which characterize the earlier course to which the name has been applied.

Although the committee recommends a course in civics in both eighth and ninth years, it does not necessarily follow that there must be or should be two full years of the subject. The committee has only suggested a half-year course in the eighth year (a daily period for one-half year, or two or three periods a week for the entire year). And while it has suggested a course for the ninth year that, in the committee's opinion, might well occupy the entire year under certain circumstances, this course is capable of adjustment to half-year requirements when conditions make it desirable (see p. 14).

(B) GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY IN SEVENTH AND EIGHTH YEARS.

There are here given, with some comment, extracts from the course of study in geography and history in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the Indianapolis schools, as published in 1914. These illustrate, as well as anything available to the committee, the socialization of geography and the coordination between geography, history, and civics. It has seemed well to include the sixth year in order to show the continuity of method from the elementary to the secondary period and because of its relation to the cycle organization.

Sixth-grade geography.—The geography of this year includes a study of Africa and South America in the first half and of the United States in the second half.¶

> By the time children reach the sixth grade they are sufficiently mature to approach the study of a continent or country with some problem in mind. Facts are needed in the solution of this problem; they should not, however, be given as isolated scraps of knowledge, but should be made to contribute to the working out of the problem.
>
> The most vital problems, however, grow out of current events that stimulate questions in the minds of the children. Therefore problems may change from year to year.

The following may be taken as typical of the problems studied in this year:

1. Considering the proximity of Africa to Europe, why have there been so few settlements and explorations until recently?
2. Egypt was once the leading power of the world, to-day a country of little influence and under the domination of England. Why?
3. No part of the world is attracting more attention than South America. What are the reasons?
4. Brazil, a country nearly as large as the United States and known to European countries for over 400 years, has a population only one-fourth as large as that of the United States and is just beginning to take a prominent part in international affairs. Reasons?

5. What are the factors which have been largely influential in developing the United States into a great industrial nation?

To illustrate the method by which such problems are developed, the following suggestive outline for the fourth problem enumerated above is given:

I. Why was the development of Brazil so retarded?
  A. Character and policy of early settlers.
    1. Portuguese influence.
    2. Policy toward Indians.
    3. Introduction of slaves and consequent predominance of negro labor.
  B. Location and climate retarded development.
    1. Largely in Southern Hemisphere.
    2. Chiefly in Torrid Zone.
  C. Topography retarded development.
    1. Forests.
    2. Mountains parallel to southeastern coast.
    3. Great plateau beyond wall of woods and rock.
    4. Coastal plain very narrow.
  D. Drainage helped to retard development.
II. What factors are contributing to its great growth to-d[illegible]
  A. Its location.
    1. In South America.
      a. All but two countries of South America border on Brazil.
      b. Great extent of coast line.
    2. Nearer to Europe and North America than the other two progressive countries of South America.
  B. Topography and climate.
    1. Modification of climate by mountains and table-lands.
    2. Mountains accessible to short railroads connecting inland towns with coast.
    3. Southern part temperate and healthful.
  C. Character of later settlers.
    1. Over 200,000 Germans in Rio do Sul.
    2. Even greater number of Italians; work on and own coffee plantations.
    3. Portuguese, Spaniards, Syrians, etc.
  D. Great natural wealth.
    1. Forest resources.
    2. Mines.
    3. Agricultural resources.
    4. Grazing lands.
  E. Increased transportation facilities.
    1. Development of navigation on the Amazon.
    2. Navigation of Paraguay River.
    3. Few railroads, but increasing in number.
    4. Steamship lines to Europe and North America. Principal harbors and exports.

Sixth-grade history.—The prominence of the historical factor in the geography of this year will be suggested by the typical outline given above. In addition to this "incidental" historical study, the period of discovery and

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colonization is studied in story form parallel with the geography of the first half year, and that from the Revolution on in the second half year parallel with the geography of the United States. The stories of Livingstone, Cecil Rhodes, Stanley, and Kitchener are taken up along with the geography of Africa. A very elementary textbook in history is used for the first time in this grade.

It should be remarked that this sixth-year history work is the culmination of the elementary six-year cycle, which began with a study of the meaning of national holidays and of Hiawatha's childhood in the first two grades, was continued in the third and fourth grades with pioneer stories and biography from American history, and in the fifth grade with the elements of European and oriental history, based on "Ten Boys." In the fifth grade, also, the modern awakening of Japan is studied, with the story of "Perry and Japan" as a basis.[r]

Seventh-grade geography.—The geography of the first half of the seventh grade is a study of "Some prominent nations of the world," including, for example, Holland, France, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Switzerland, China, Japan, Argentina, Brazil. In the second half of the year, "The world in general," "The conditions of commerce," and "Four great nations of the world—British Empire, German Empire, Russian Empire, the United States"—are the subjects of study. A general geography and a commercial geography are used as texts to supply the material for study. The method of study is the same as in the sixth year. Some typical problems are:

> In spite of its size, Holland is one of the great mercantile nations of the world. Show why the Dutch were compelled to seek their fortunes in trade and why they were so successful.
>
> The Argentine Republic has a better opportunity for future development than any other country of South America. Why?

The study of "The world in general" is organized around such topics as—

> The sea, the great commercial highway.
> Causes that give rise to commerce.
> Natural conditions that affect commerce.
> Human control of commerce.
> Means of transportation.

The study of the British Empire is organized around the following main topics:

> Size and population.
> Wide distribution of territory.
> Principal parts of the Empire.
> How the parts are helpful to one another.
> Means of knitting the parts together.
> Relation of the Empire to the rest of the world, especially to the United States.

Among the central topics for the study of the United States are:

> What has caused it to become almost self-sustaining?
> What has caused it to become one of the great commercial powers of the world?
> Its present commercial status.
> Conservation the great problem of the future if the present position at home and abroad is to be maintained.

Seventh-grade history.—Again the strong historical element in the geography of this year is to be noted. History, however, is also given a separate place throughout the year. In the history study geography becomes an essential factor.

> Owing to the use of different texts, no attempt is made to outline the work in history of the 7B grade in detail. The point of view used in teaching this work should, however, be the same throughout.
>
> In his "Moral principles in education" Dewey says: "History is vital or dead to the child according as it is, or is not, presented from the sociological standpoint. When treated simply as a record of what has passed and gone, it must be mechanical, because the past, as past, is remote. Simply as the past there is no motive for attending to it. The ethical value of history teaching will be measured by the extent to which past events are made the means of understanding the present." No history, therefore, should be treated as though it had meaning or value in itself, but should constantly be made to show its relation or contribution to the present....
>
> In the work of this grade make the children feel that the history of our country is a part of the history of the world and that it had its beginnings many centuries before its discovery....

Accordingly, the elements of European history, which are studied throughout this grade, are organized under the general title, "European beginnings in American history," and are treated as such.

Eighth-grade history.—Geography has no place in this grade as a separate subject, though it is always an important factor in the study of history. The history of this year is American history, taken up systematically in connection with a text. A somewhat full suggestive outline is given in the course of study, but need not be repeated here. The spirit controlling the history instruction in this grade is the same as that which controls in the preceding grade.

The characteristic feature of this year is the introduction of "community civics" as a separate subject throughout the year, and its close coordination with the history. This means primarily that the history of the Nation is treated as the story of the growth of a national "community," involving all the "elements of welfare" with which the pupils are made familiar in their civics work, the same development of means of cooperation, especially through government, and so on. More particularly, it means that special aspects of civic life and organization are emphasized in connection with those periods of American history in which they are most significant. The pupils find, for example, that the motives that led to exploration and colonization (whether on the Atlantic coast or in the far West) were the same as those which have led to the development of their own local community and State, and that the process of development is the same in the one case as in the other. Advantage is taken of the period of development of transportation and communication to emphasize the importance of these factors from the point of view of the study of the same topics in civics.

Before leaving the subject of geography and history in the seventh and eighth years, attention should be called to the emphasis that is given in the Indianapolis course of study to economic facts and relations, not only in the subjects of geography and history, but also in civics. This has an important relation to the development of the same field of social study in the later cycle of the years X-XII (see pp. 33, 49).

(C) CIVICS FOR YEARS VII-IX.

1. **Special report on community civics.**—A special committee of the Committee on Social Studies has prepared a detailed report on the aims, methods, and content of community civics adapted particularly to the eighth and ninth grades.[1] This special report has been approved by the Committee on Social Studies, adopted as a part of its present general report, and issued as a manual on "The Teaching of Community Civics" in Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, United States Bureau of Education. Its availability in that bulletin makes unnecessary, in the present report, a detailed description of the course and its methods. Some of the essential features, however, are here summarized.[5]

(a) **Significance of the term "community."**—Community civics lays emphasis upon the local community because (1) it is the community with which every citizen, especially the child, comes into most intimate relations, and which is always in the foreground of experience; (2) it is easier for the child, as for any citizen, to realize his membership in the local community, to feel a sense of personal responsibility for it, and to enter into actual cooperation with it, than is the case with the national community.

But our Nation and our State are communities, as well as our city or village, and a child is a citizen of the larger as of the smaller community. The significance of the term "community civics" does not lie in its geographical implications, but in its implication of community relations, of a community of interests.... It is a question of point of view, and community civics applies this point of view to the study of the national community as well as to the study of the local community.

(b) **Aims of community civics.**—The aim of community civics is to help the child to know his community—not merely a lot of facts about it, but the meaning of his community life, what it does for him, and how it does it, what the community has a right to expect from him, and how he may fulfill his obligation, meanwhile cultivating in him the essential qualities and habits of good citizenship.

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[1] This committee consisted of J. Lynn Barnard, School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia; F.W. Carrier, Somerville (Mass.) High School; Arthur W. Dunn, specialist in civic education, United States Bureau of Education; and Clarence D. Kingsley, high-school inspector, Massachusetts Board of Education.

More specifically this aim is analyzed as follows:

> To accomplish its part in training for citizenship, community civics should aim primarily to lead the pupil (1) to see the importance and significance of the elements of community welfare in their relations to himself and to the communities of which he is a member; (2) to know the social agencies, governmental and voluntary, that exist to secure these elements of community welfare; (3) to recognize his civic obligations, present and future, and to respond to them by appropriate action.

A unique feature of the method of community civics described in this report lies in the fact that there is the closest relation between these three essential aims and the three steps by means of which each of the main topics is to be taught (see p. 23).

(c) **Content of community civics.**—A characteristic feature of community civics is that it focuses attention upon the "elements of community welfare" rather than upon the machinery of government. The latter is discussed only in the light of a prior study of the "elements of welfare," and in relation to them. The "elements of welfare" afford the organizing principle for this new type of civics.

> It is suggested that the following elements of welfare be studied as topics: (1) Health; (2) Protection of life and property; (3) Recreation; (4) Education; (5) Civic beauty; (6) Wealth; (7) Communication; (8) Transportation; (9) Migration; (10) Charities; (11) Correction.
>
> In addition, the course may well include the following topics dealing with the mechanism of community agencies: (12) How governmental agencies are conducted; (13) How governmental agencies are financed; (14) How voluntary agencies are conducted and financed.[†]

(d) **Methods of community civics.**—I. Social facts upon which the method should be based:

> (1) The pupil is a young citizen with real present interests at stake.... It is the first task of the teacher, therefore, not to create an interest for future use, but to demonstrate existing interests and present citizenship.
>
> (2) The pupil as a young citizen is a real factor in community affairs.... Therefore it is a task of the teacher to cultivate in the pupil a sense of his responsibility, present as well as future.
>
> (3) If a citizen has an interest in civic matters and a sense of his personal responsibility, he will want to act. Therefore the teacher must help the pupil to express his conviction in word and deed. He must be given an opportunity...to live his civics, both in the school and in the community outside.
>
> (4) Right action depends not only upon information, interest, and will, but also upon good judgment. Hence the young citizen must be trained to weigh facts and to judge relative values, both in regard to what constitute the essential

elements in a situation and in regard to the best means of meeting it.

(5) Every citizen possesses a large amount of unorganized information regarding community affairs.... It is, therefore, important to teach the pupils how to test and organize their knowledge.

(6) People are...most ready to act upon those convictions that they have helped to form by their own mental processes and that are based upon their own experience and observation. Hence the teacher should...lead the class: (1) To contribute facts from their own experience; (2) To contribute other facts gathered by themselves; (3) To use their own reasoning powers in forming conclusions; and (4) To submit these conclusions to criticism.

(7) The class has the essential characteristics of a community. Therefore the method by which the class exercises are conducted is of the utmost importance in the cultivation of civic qualities and habits....

II. Three steps in teaching an element of welfare:

(1) **Approach to the topic.**—In beginning the study of an element of welfare the teacher should lead the pupils to realize its importance to themselves, to their neighborhood, and to the community, and to see the dependence of the individual upon social agencies. Much depends upon the method of approach. The planning of an approach appropriate to a given topic and applicable to a given class calls for ingenuity and resourcefulness. In this bulletin approaches to various topics are suggested by way of illustration, but the teacher should try to find another approach whenever he thinks the one suggested is not the best one for the class.

(2) **Investigation of agencies.**—The knowledge of the class should now be extended by a concrete and more or less detailed investigation of agencies such as those suggested in the bulletin. These investigations should consist largely of first-hand observation and study of local conditions. The agencies suggested under each topic are so many that no attempt should be made to have the class as a whole study them all intensively. Such an attempt would result in superficiality, kill interest, and defeat the purpose of the course....

(3) **Recognition of responsibility.**—A lesson in community civics is not complete unless it leaves with the pupil a sense of his personal responsibility and results in right action. To attain these ends is perhaps the most difficult and delicate task of the teacher. It is discussed here as the third step in teaching an element of welfare; in practice, however, it is a process coincident with the first two steps and resulting from them. If the work suggested in the foregoing paragraphs on "Approach" and "Investigation of agencies" has been well done, the pupil's sense of responsibility, his desire to act, and his knowledge of how to act will thereby have been developed. Indeed, the extent to which they have been developed is in a measure a test of the effectiveness of the approach and the study of agencies.

2. **Ninth-year civics.**—When provision is made for community civics in the eighth year the way is prepared for work in the ninth year that would not otherwise be possible. The work of the ninth year should build upon, or grow out of, the eighth-year course; but it should have a broader horizon, develop new points of view and new relations, and emphasize aspects of social and civic life that were only lightly touched upon or wholly omitted in the earlier course. Incidentally, also, this ninth-year course should lay substantial foundations for the social studies of succeeding years.

(a) **Amplification of national concepts.**—The reaction against the exclusive and formal study of national government and the increasing attention given to the study of local community relations have resulted in a noticeable tendency to minimize the study of civics in a national sense. It would be inexpressibly unfortunate if the study of local community life and local civic relations should supplant a study of national community life and national civic relations. The two aspects of civic life should clearly supplement each other. While we are impressing the pupil with the importance of his local civic relations and utilizing them as a means of cultivating fundamental civic concepts and habits, we should not allow this to divert attention from the increasingly intimate relations between local and national interests, and the increasing importance of a recognition by the individual of his responsibility for the national welfare.

It is extremely difficult for the average citizen in a democracy to think in terms of national interest, especially when there is any apparent conflict between it and the local or group interest. An illustration of this is seen in the local influence brought to bear upon the members of the National Congress which often prevent them from voting on public questions in the interest of the Nation as a whole when it seems to be antagonistic to the interests of the local districts. Questions of health, of education, of industry can no longer be considered in their local bearings alone, but must be dealt with in the light of national policy and to the end of national efficiency. As our population grows, means of communication perfected and the interests of the individual more closely interwoven with the interests of others, the opportunities for friction and conflict increase. So much the greater is the necessity for training the pupil to recognize the common general interest in the midst of conflicting group interests and for cultivating the will to subordinate the latter to the former.[u]

On the other hand, there is another tendency which, though good in itself, sometimes has a tendency to undermine our sense of the importance of national solidarity. This is the conception of "internationalism," of "humanity as greater than its divisions," of a "world community." This conception indeed needs cultivation, as suggested in the following section; but it is necessary to keep our minds upon the elemental fact that before there can be effective "internationalism" there must be efficient and self-respecting nationalism; that the first step toward the realization of a "world community" must be the cultivation of sound ideals, and of efficiency in attaining these ideals, on the part of the several nations which must constitute the "world community."

The word "patriotism" has been much abused; but it is a good word. Instead of avoiding it because of its abuse, and instead of consciously or unconsciously giving young citizens the impression that the thing for which the word stands has somehow lost its significance, every effort should be made to imbue it with real meaning and to make it a potent influence in the development of a sound national life. The committee submits that this should be a definite aim of secondary education, and that one of the means of attaining it is by applying to the study of our national interests, activities, and organization the point of view, the spirit, and the methods of community civics. This may be done in some measure in the eighth year and earlier, but it may be accomplished more fully and more effectively in the ninth year, and later, on the basis of the earlier work.

(b) **Amplification of world interests.**—As individuals within a community, or local communities within a State, or the States constituting the Nation, are dependent upon one another and are bound together into the larger community life by their common interests and cooperative action, so it can easily be shown that nations are becoming more and more closely dependent upon each other. Common world interests need emphasis, world sympathies need cultivation.[V] Pupils will be quite prepared for instruction to this end on the basis of the principles developed in community civics. Such study should be concrete and based upon current events and problems. It offers a socially important line of development, and every available opportunity to this end should be seized upon (see also under "History," pp. 36, 37).

(c) **Civic relations of vocational life.**—Still another opportunity presented in the ninth year is for the stressing of the civic relations of vocational life. There is evidence that, as a rule, ninth-year pupils have begun to think more or less earnestly about what they are "going to do," even though they may not have made any connection in their minds between their future vocations and the particular studies they are taking. Much of the mortality that occurs during the eighth and ninth years is due to the failure of pupils and parents to see the economic value of the high-school course. An opportunity exists to make high-school education seem "worth while" by taking the budding vocational or economic interest as one point of departure.

It is one of the essential qualities of the good citizen to be self-supporting, and through the activities necessary to his self-support to contribute efficiently to the world's progress. Not only is it important that this fact be emphasized in the civic education of the youth, but it is also appropriate that he be given as much enlightenment as possible to assist him in choosing his vocation wisely from the standpoint of social efficiency as well as from that of personal success.

The question of vocational guidance is very much in the foreground at present. While there is general agreement that the young need "guidance" for the vocational aspect of life, as for its other aspects, there is wide divergence of opinion as to the nature of this guidance and the means by which it may best be given. The committee on social studies believes that education as a whole should take account of vocational needs and should contribute to the preparation of the youth for an intelligent choice of vocation and for efficiency in it. As for the ninth-year study now under consideration, the committee is here interested in its vocational guidance aspect only as an incident to the broader social and civic training of the youth. If it can be made to contribute anything to his guidance toward a wise choice of vocation and intelligent preparation for it, it is that much gain.

The chief purpose of the phase of the ninth-year work now being emphasized should be the development of an appreciation of the social significance of all work; of the social value and interdependence of all occupations; of the social responsibility of the worker, not only for the character of his work but for the use of its fruits; of the opportunities and necessity for good citizenship in vocational life; of the duty of the community to the worker; of the necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community; and of the part that government actually plays in regulating the economic life of the community and of the individual. In other words, the work here proposed is an application of community civics to a phase of individual and community life that is now coming into the foreground of the pupil's interest. It has for its background the earlier work, and differs from it primarily in the larger emphasis given to the economic interest and its resulting activities. The other aspects of community life dealt with in the earlier course should receive renewed attention—the family, the protection of life, health, and property, education, recreation, etc.; but even they may be approached from the point of view of their relations to the activities and arrangements involved in "getting a living."

The term "vocational civics" has been suggested for this phase of the ninth-year work. The term is hardly adequate, however, since it is as important at this time to give instruction regarding the civic responsibility connected with the use of wealth as it is regarding responsibility in its production.

Community civics deals with real situations and relations in the pupil's own life. This vocational or economic phase of the subject should be no exception. It may well be approached through an examination of occupations or industries in which the pupils have some direct interest—those for which the several members of the class have a predilection, those in which their parents are engaged, or those of most importance in the immediate community.

Nowhere has a course in vocational civics been found that seems fully to satisfy the requirements postulated. Some steps have been taken in this direction, however, and, as an illustration of what has actually been done, reference may be made to the work of Supt. William A. Wheatley, of the Middletown (Conn.) public schools.[w]

"Vocational enlightenment" at Middletown, Conn.—In the Middletown High School a half-year course has been introduced in the first year under the title of "A Survey of Vocations," or "Vocational Enlightenment." It consists of three parts:

> 1. Consideration of the importance of vocational information from the viewpoint of the individual and society, the characteristics of a good vocation, and how to study vocations.

> 2. Detailed treatment of 80 or 90 professions, trades, and occupations, grouped under agriculture, commerce, railroading, civil service, manufacturing, machine trades, engineering, building trades, learned professions, miscellaneous and new openings.
>
> 3. Practical discussion of choosing a life work, preparation for that work, securing a position, and efficient service and its reward.
>
> In studying each of the vocations selected, we touch upon its healthfulness, remuneration, value to society, and social standing, as well as upon the natural qualifications, general education, and special preparation necessary for success. We investigate at first hand as many as possible of the vocations found in our city and vicinity. Each pupil is encouraged to bring from home first hand and, as far as practicable, "inside" facts concerning his father's occupation. Local professional men, engineers, business men, manufacturers, mechanics, and agriculturists are invited to present informally and quite personally the salient features of their various vocations.
>
> In the class exercise on the mechanical engineer such topics as these are discussed:
>
> Which of the three engineers so far studied renders society the greatest service? Which is most necessary to your own community? Which one's work seems most attractive? What natural qualifications, general education, and special training are necessary? What subjects should constitute a high-school course preparatory to this profession? What subjects do the best technical schools demand for entrance? What advantages and disadvantages are there in preparing for this profession in a cooperative school and shop course? What kind of work during the summer would serve best to determine aptitude for it? Difference between expert machinist and mechanical engineer? What is a contracting engineer? etc.

Supt. Wheatley says of this course that—

> Besides being intrinsically interesting to the pupils, it gives them greater respect for all kinds of honorable work, helps them to choose more wisely their life work, convinces them of the absolute necessity for a thorough preparation before entering any vocation, and holds to the end of the high-school course many who would otherwise drop out early in the race.

The committee would encourage experiment along this line. It would, however, repeat its suggestion that in the further development of such course particular attention be given to its broader social and civic implications; that instruction in vocations from the point of view of individual success be made not the end but a means to a more fundamental social education. The approach should be through a consideration of the services rendered by any particular vocation rather than from the point of view of remuneration. It is a principle no less important that the vocation, if it plays its true part in the life of the individual, is the chief means for the development of personality; consequently the pupil should be taught to seek a vocation that will call forth his best efforts. There should be something of the personal challenge in "vocational enlightenment."

3. **Adaptation of community civics to rural conditions.**—Community civics has been developed principally to meet urban needs. There is need for an adaptation of the subject to rural conditions. The com-

munity relations of the rural youth are different from those of the city youth. In a sense they are simpler. They also seem more vague. Their very simplicity apparently adds to the difficulty of developing a systematic course in community civics. Furthermore, the teachers in rural schools are often less experienced and less readily recognize the opportunities and materials for civic training.

Prof. J. F. Smith, of the Berea College (Ky.) Normal School has successfully developed a course in community civics to meet local rural conditions. One of his lesson plans on roads is given in Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, United States Bureau of Education, page 39, and is here reproduced because of its suggestiveness.

> In this study numerous photographs were used, walks were taken over good and bad roads, and the pupils and teachers actually did a piece of road work.
>
> Study and report on condition of roads in the community. Draw a map of the community, indicating roads. Which are dirt roads, rocky roads, other kinds? Which are well graded, well crowned? Note side ditches; are they adequate? Note culverts and bridges. Estimate miles of road in the community, public and private.
>
> Study road-making material in the community. Note places where limestone is found; sandstone, slate, gravel. Are these materials accessible?
>
> Find out cost of hauling in the community. Consult wagoners and learn charges per 100 pounds for freight and farm produce. Can farmers afford to market produce at present cost of cartage? Find out how much freight is hauled into the community annually and compute amount paid for this. How long will wagon and set of harness last on the roads? How long on good roads? Difference in cost for 10 years. How much could people who buy supplies afford to spend on road upkeep each year in order to cut down freight rates?
>
> Compare cost of hauling here with cost in European countries where the best roads exist. What overtax do the people have to pay? Note that this overtax is in the form of higher prices for household necessities and in smaller profits for farm produce.
>
> Road building: Determine kind of road; the location; grades; how grades affect the haul; the drainage level and steep roads, side ditches, culverts, subdrainage, crown; actual construction, tools, funds, means employed.
>
> Road maintenance: Kind of material to use; regular attention necessary; the tools.
>
> What good roads mean to a community; the economic problem. How they enhance the value of land. Means of communication. Better social life.
>
> The history of the development of roads, canals, and railways in your State and in the Nation, in its relation to the growth of community spirit and cooperation, will be fruitful. What effect did the steam railway have upon the development of canals? Why? Show how the Panama Canal tends to unite our Nation more firmly. Study the problems of rapid transportation in cities and their relation to various phases of city life. Also the effects of the parcel post and of electric interurban lines on the welfare of farmers and city dwellers. Make a comprehensive study of the work of the Federal Government in promoting and safeguarding transportation. The ship-purchase bill and the Government ownership of railways and of street railway lines afford material for discussion and debate.[x]

It is probable that the rural citizen comes into direct contact with State and National Governments with greater relative frequency than does the urban citizen, whose life is largely regulated by the municipality. Under the topic, "Protection of property," for example, the following discussion was introduced in rural classes in Delaware:

> The United States Department of Agriculture, in a recent report, estimates that $795,100,000 worth of damage was done by insects to the crops of this country in a single year. What insects, birds, and animals are destructive of property in your community? What plant and animal diseases are prevalent in your locality or State? Investigate the work of your State agricultural college to prevent loss from these causes. (Get reports and other publications directly from the college. Ask the children whether their fathers receive publications.) Is there any department of your State government or any State officer whose work contributes to the protection of property against such enemies? Investigate and report on the work of the Federal Department of Agriculture for the protection of property against destruction by the causes named. Why should the Federal Government interest itself in this matter in your community? (Reports on this subject may be obtained directly from the department. These reports may also be in your local library.) Protection of birds; value to the farmer of insect-eating birds.

Under "Fire protection" the following topics were developed in the same classes:

> Show how the farmer is largely dependent upon his own efforts and the friendly cooperation of neighbors. Contrast with the elaborate arrangement in cities. Why the difference? Point out the extreme importance of fire prevention in rural communities. Value of the telephone as a means of fire protection. If you live in a village or a small town, describe the arrangements for fire protection; method of alarm; water supply; bucket brigades; volunteer companies; etc. Compare with the conditions of the farm and of large cities. Have the children find out whether their fathers' property is insured. In what companies? Where are the main offices of these companies? (Probably in distant cities or States.) Discuss the methods of insurance, to show the wide-spread cooperation through the payment of premiums. Is there a grange in your community? Does it provide a means of insurance? If so, describe it.

Under loss from storm, flood, frost, etc.:

> Is it possible to get insurance against loss from such causes? Do any of your parents have insurance of this kind? What relation do the weather reports issued by the National Government have to the protection of property? Does your father receive weather reports by mail? If not, where may you find these reports? Investigate and report on the work of the Weather Bureau. (Information may be obtained directly from the Weather Bureau, Department of Agriculture, Washington.)

Urban conditions should not be entirely neglected even in rural schools, because rural life and urban life are closely dependent upon each other. The material selected for study, however, should be related to the child's experience as far as possible. For example, in rural schools in the neighborhood of Wilmington, Del., the following statement from the report of the Wilmington Board of Health was made a basis for discussion:

> During the year 1914 there were 142 cases of typhoid fever, with 122 deaths. Our report for this year shows an increase of 76 cases over the previous year. This increase was due to the prevalence of typhoid in New Castle County, and we feel that Wilmington was particularly fortunate in not having an epidemic, as practically all milk and vegetable products supplied to Wilmington come from this agricultural district.

Again, from the report of the Wilmington City Board of Health was taken the classification of municipal waste in garbage, ashes, rubbish, and trade waste, with the requirement that these be kept separate:

> Compare these provisions for the city of Wilmington with the needs and conditions of a small community like your own. Refer to what is said about other cities and compare with conditions and arrangements in your own town. How is the garbage from your home disposed of? Is it done by public provision or left to the individual householder? Whether it is done publicly or privately, note the necessity for cooperation on the part of the people. Is the garbage removed in a way to protect health and to avoid annoyance to your own families and neighbors? Is it important that garbage and other kinds of waste be kept separate in a small community? Are there laws or ordinances in your town to regulate the matter of garbage? What means can you think of to improve your own home methods of caring for garbage?

4. **Relation of civics to history.**—The coordination of geography, history, and civics instruction in the years VII-IX and earlier has been referred to in preceding pages (pp. 17-21). The application to instruction in history of the principles which have already vitalized instruction in civics is discussed in detail in later pages (pp. 36-37). The principles there discussed, the committee believes, are equally pertinent to history instruction in both junior and senior cycles. The purpose of the present section is to emphasize the peculiar value of the civics proposed for the junior cycle from the standpoint of historical study.

History as it is usually taught in the first year of the high school is no better adapted to the educational requirements of that age than the old-time civil government. The committee further maintains that, even from the standpoint of the subsequent high-school courses in history, the latter should be preceded by a course in civics of the type described above. Children live in the present and not in the past. The past becomes educational to them only as it is related to the present. Hero stories and pioneer stories from history are of use in the early grades because children react naturally to them. Individuals are interested in the history of government, of education, of commerce, of industry, or of democracy, in proportion as they have a present interest in these things. Community civics endeavors to establish a consciousness of present community relations before discussing the more remote development of these relations.

On the other hand, the history of a thing may add to its present interest. Railroads assume a new significance when compared with the means of transportation in colonial times, or with the road system of the

Roman Empire. Community civics affords opportunity for the actual use of much historical matter, for the development of the "historical sense," and for the creation of a desire to know more history.y The best time to introduce history in the education of the child is when it is of immediate use. The traditional history course has given to the child a mass of facts, chronologically arranged, because, in the judgment of the adult, these facts may sometime be useful, or for the purposes of that vague thing, "general culture." Community civics affords opportunity to use history to illuminate topics of immediate interest.

Local history finds its best opportunity in connection with community civics. There is hardly a topic in community civics that may not be made clearer by looking back to the simpler stages of its development. For developing an appreciation of what history means and for giving historical perspective to the present, local history is as useful as any other history. The most effective courses in community civics make large use of local history. In 1910 the work of keeping Philadelphia clean was—

> largely in the hands of a bureau of surveys, which has constructed over 1,200 miles of sewers at a cost of nearly $35,000,000, and of a bureau of highways and street cleaning, which, in 1909, employed a contractor to clean the streets of the city and to remove all ashes for $1,199,000; and to remove all garbage for $488,988.

Nothing could make so clear the statement that this complex and costly machinery of government is merely a means of citizen cooperation as the incident given in the autobiography of Benjamin Franklin, early citizen of Philadelphia:

> One day I found a poor industrious man, who was willing to undertake keeping the pavement clean, by sweeping it twice a week, carrying off the dirt from before all the neighbors' doors, for the sum of sixpence per month, to be paid by each house. I then wrote and printed a paper setting forth the advantages to the neighborhood that might be obtained by this small expense; ...I sent one of these papers to each house, and in a day or two went around to see who would subscribe an agreement to pay these six pences; it was unanimously signed, and for a time well executed. This raised a general desire to have all the streets paved, and made the people more willing to submit to a tax for that purpose.

General history also finds its use. The topics set forth below are given as a mere suggestion.

Under the topic Health:

> Conceptions of disease as found among uncivilized peoples, the ancients, and in medieval times.
>
> Alchemy and the development of a knowledge of medicine.
>
> Development of sanitation; sanitary conditions in medieval cities.
>
> Greek ideal of physical development; gymnasiums and other means of perfecting the body.
>
> Important discoveries: Circulation of the blood, surgery and anesthetics, bacteria and germs, disinfectants.

Under the topic Education:

Of what the education of the youth consisted among savage, barbarous, and ancient peoples.

Among such peoples were all the youth educated or only certain classes?

Show how, among the savage Australians, the barbarous American Indians, the ancient Spartans, education was adapted to existing needs of life.

What kinds of schools existed among such peoples, and who were the teachers?

The part taken by the church in education in the Middle Ages.

Founding of the great universities in Europe and America.

Growth of public education in Europe and the United States.

How the decay of the apprentice system has led to a need for industrial education in the public schools.

Under the topic Recreation:

Primitive customs; dancing and music.

Public games in Greece and Rome.

Drama and the theater among the ancients.

Means of amusement in the Middle Ages.

Bards and troubadours.

Attitude of the Puritans toward recreation.

Comparison of forms of recreation in different countries.

Description and purposes of pageants.

Under the topics Transportation and Trade:

Early methods of trading and transportation; barter, market places, caravans, sailing vessel, etc.

The period of exploration and discovery.

Early trade routes and road building.

Periods of canal and railroad building.

Application of steam to land and water travel.

Discoveries and inventions relating to transportation and communication.

Under the topic Charities:

Provision made for widows, orphans, and the poor among the ancient Jews and Mohammedans.

Bread lines in Rome and their effects.

Treatment of beggars and diseased paupers in Eastern countries and in medieval Europe and England.

Attitude of the church toward the poor.

Description of poorhouses by Dickens.

Condition of poorhouses in America 50 years ago.

5. **Summary.**—Community civics is a course of training in citizenship, organized with reference to the pupil's immediate needs, rich in its historical, sociological, economic, and political relations, and affording a logical and pedagogically sound avenue of approach to the later social studies.[2]

PART III.—SOCIAL STUDIES FOR YEARS X-XII.

(A) GENERAL ADMINISTRATIVE FEATURES.

1. **General outline.**—The committee recommends as appropriate to the last three years of the secondary school the following courses:

I. **European history to approximately the end of the seventeenth century**—1 year. This would include ancient and oriental civilization, English history to the end of the period mentioned, and the period of American exploration.

II. **European history (including English history) since approximately the end of the seventeenth century**—1 (or ½) year.

III. **American history since the seventeenth century**—1 (or ½) year.

IV. **Problems of American democracy**—1 (or ½) year.

These courses clearly repeat the cycle of social study provided for in years VII-IX (see page 18). The principal of organization suggested in the pages following for all of these courses makes them extremely flexible and easily adaptable to the special needs of different groups of pupils, or of different high-school curriculums (commercial, scientific, technical, agricultural, etc.).

2. **Time allotment and minimum essentials.**—The course of social studies here outlined would constitute, if all were taken, from 2 ½ to 4 units, dependent upon whether one or one-half year is allotted to each of the last three courses. The committee believes that there should be a social study in each year of the pupil's course. It is, however, conscious of the difficulty presented by the present requirements of the high-school program. The question then arises as to what would constitute a minimum course of social study under these existing conditions. To this question the committee would reply:

(a) The minimum essentials of the years X-XII should be determined by the needs of the particular pupil or group of pupils in question.

(b) Other things being equal, it would seem desirable for the pupil, whose time in the last three years is limited, to take those social studies which would most directly aid him to understand the relations of his own social life. If, for example, he had but one year out of the three for social study, and there were no special reason for deciding otherwise, it is probable that he might better take a half year of American history and a half year of European history (courses II and III); or, a half year of American history and a half year of the twelfth-year study of social problems (courses III and IV). The choice among these might be influenced by the trend taken by his social study in the ninth year (see the alternative possibilities of the ninth-year work, page 14).

(c) If the principles advocated in the following pages of this report for the organization of instruction in the social studies be adhered to, the apparent incompleteness of the cycle of social study, due to the impracticability of taking all the courses offered, will be in some degree obviated. Briefly stated, this means that any course of history instruction should be so organized that the pupil will inevitably acquire some familiarity with the economic, social, and civic factors in community life, just as in the study of civics or of social problems he should inevitably learn much history by using it (see pp. 30-32).

(B) HISTORY.

I. GENERAL STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION.

1. **Reasons for the proposed organization of history courses.**—The committee recommends the organization of the history course in two or three units as indicated in the general outline on page 33 in view of the following considerations:

(1) In small high schools more than two units of history are impracticable; and in large high schools, where more could be offered, few pupils would (or do) take more than two units, and these often unrelated.

(2) The long historical period included in course I offers a wide range of materials from which to select, and makes possible the development of topics continuously and unhampered by chronological and geographical limitations.

(3) The assignment of an equal amount of time (or twice the time if a year is given to each of courses II and III) to the period since the seventeenth century as to the period prior to that time, expresses the committee's conviction that recent history is richer in suitable materials for secondary education than the more remote periods, and is worthy of more intensive study.[aa]

(4) The history of any two years that a pupil may elect under this plan will be related; that of courses II and III is contemporaneous and presents many points of contact, and that of either course II or III is continuous with that of course I.

(5) Under the present four-unit plan a premium is placed upon ancient and American history, all that goes between being left largely to chance. Under the plan proposed by the committee a much larger proportion of the pupils will secure the benefits of a study of the essentials of European history.

(6) It is important to remember that the cycle of history provided for in the years X-XII will have been once traversed, on narrower lines, in the years VII-IX (see p. 11). Consequently, the pupil who for any reason can not complete the cycle in the years X-XII will not be wholly deficient in the knowledge of any of its parts.

(7) Although many teachers are at present inadequately prepared to follow the method of instruction advocated by the committee, which requires the selection of materials on the basis of the pupils' own immediate interests and of current problems (see below), the compression of a longer historical period into a briefer course will bring pressure to bear to induce a more careful selection of facts and events for emphasis.[bb]

2. **Organization of subject matter within history courses.**—Within each course the committee recommends—

(1) The adoption to the fullest extent possible of a "topical" method, or a "problem" method, as opposed to a method based on chronological sequence alone.[cc]

(2) The selection of topics or problems for study with reference to (a) the pupil's own immediate interest; (b) general social significance.

Concrete suggestion as to what the committee means by these criteria is given in the following pages, especially in the three type lessons on pages 42-45.

The organization of history instruction on this basis unquestionably requires greater skill on the part of the teacher than the traditional method, less dependence upon a single textbook of the types now existent, and larger use of many books, or of encyclopedic books, for reference purposes. If the selection of materials is to be determined by immediate interests and current problems, it is manifestly impossible to furnish in advance a detailed and complete outline of topics for universal and invariable use. To attempt to do so would be contrary to the very spirit of the method. Whether Miss Harris, for example, should dwell at length upon the War of 1812 and the subjects of the rights of neutrals (see p. 42), could not be determined for her in advance by a committee, nor even by an international lawyer to whom the question might seem of profound importance. The matter was determined for her by the exigencies of the hour and the interests of her pupils. So, also, was the method by which she approached and unfolded the subject.

On the other hand, there are certain topics that approach universality and invariability in their application. It is hardly conceivable, for example, that Miss Dilks could have omitted a study of "Athens—the City Beautiful" (see p. 43). The love for the beautiful is universal. In varied forms it is common to the pupils in the class, and to all communities, nations, peoples, and times. Athens represents a climax in the development of esthetics. But the feature that especially characterizes Miss Dilks's lesson is the method by which she brought "Athens—the City Beautiful" into the range of the pupils' own interest and experience and made it a direct means for the further cultivation of a fundamental interest in their lives.

In this there is suggested a possible organizing principle for history that is at once scientific and especially effective in teaching pupils who have had a course in community civics of the type described earlier in this report. This organizing principle is found in the "elements of welfare" or "fundamental interests," which afford an effective basis for the organization of the latter subject. It is a subjective rather than an objective basis. In the case just cited the pupils themselves have a more or less developed esthetic interest, which expresses itself in various elemental ways and reacts to conditions in the immediate community. This interest is common to all mankind and finds expression in a great variety of ways. It expressed itself in a remarkable manner among the Greeks, who developed certain standards of beauty that have profoundly influenced the world since their time.

Already the principle of organization here suggested is being adopted more or less completely in the treatment of one great phase of history—that which relates to the "economic interest" and is expressed in economic or industrial history. Not all industrial history has been written on this basis of organization. Reference is made to the type of industrial history to which Prof. Robinson evidently refers in the statement quoted on page 47 of this report and which is clearly illustrated in the lesson described by Miss Hazard (p. 44). The same principle is applied in the course suggested by Dr. Leavitt and Miss Brown in their chapter on history in "Prevocational Education in the Public Schools."[1]

But boys and girls, even in vocational and prevocational classes, have fundamental interests other than the economic. They are the interests or "elements of welfare" that serve as the organizing principle of community civics—physical, economic, intellectual, esthetic, religious, and social. Their relative prominence varies among nations as among individuals, partly because of temperament and partly because of physical and social influences; but the story of the life of any nation is the story of effort to provide for them. The life history of a nation, as of any community, consists of two great lines of endeavor which are, of course, closely interrelated: (1) The endeavor to establish permanent and definite relations with the land, which involves the geographical factor, and (2) the endeavor to establish effective means of cooperation to provide for the "elements of welfare," which involves the evolution of a form of government. The committee merely raises the question as a basis for discussion and experiment whether the principle of organization here suggested may not do as much to vitalize instruction in history as it has already done to vitalize instruction in government under the name of community civics.

3. **Important aims in teaching history.**—(1) A primary aim of instruction in American history should be to develop a vivid conception of American nationality, a strong and intelligent patriotism, and a keen sense of the responsibility of every citizen for national efficiency. It is only on the basis of national solidarity, national efficiency (economic, social, political), and national patriotism that this or any nation can expect to perform its proper function in the family of nations (see pp. 24, 25).

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[1] Leavitt and Brown, *Prevocational Education in the Public Schools*, chap. viii. Houghton Mifflin Co.

(2) One of the conscious purposes of instruction in the history of nations other than our own should be the cultivation of a sympathetic understanding of such nations and their peoples, of an intelligent appreciation of their contributions to civilization, and of a just attitude toward them. So important has this seemed that a proposal has recently been made that one year of the history course be supplanted by a course to be know as "A Study of Nations."[2]

In suggesting such a study, Clarence D. Kingsley says:

> The danger to be avoided above all others is the tendency to claim that one nation has a seeping superiority over others. The claim of such superiority, as among individuals, is a sure cause of irreconcilable hatred. The cure for this narrow and partisan attitude is to be found in the broad conception that humanity is greater than any one nation. The idea should be developed that every nation has, or may have, something of worth to contribute to other nations, and to humanity as a whole. This conception when thoroughly inculcated would lead to a national respect for other nations, and to the belief that the continued existence and development of all nations are essential to the development of civilization. We can not expect that a principle so fundamental and comprehensive can be inculcated in the abstract; but through a specific study of many nations, the achievements and possibilities of each of which have been studied in the concrete, this idea may become established.
>
> This conception of the supplementary value of the dissimilarities of the different nations and peoples, together with the ideal of human brotherhood, which is generally thought of in terms of essential similarity, should do much to establish genuine internationalism, free from sentiment, founded on fact, and actually operative in the affairs of nations.

This "Study of Nations," as Mr. Kingsley sees it, instead of focusing attention upon the past, would start frankly with the present of typical modern nations—European, South American, oriental—and would use history in explanation of these nations and of clearly defined problems of supreme social importance at the present time. Not only would the use of history organized in this way, according to Mr. Kingsley, "tend to reduce friction in international relations, as such friction often results from popular clamor, born of a lack of understanding of foreign nations," but "it would help to a truer understanding and appreciation of the foreigners who come to our shores," and "it would lead us to be more helpful in our relations with backward peoples, because it would help us to value them on the basis of their latent possibilities, rather than on the basis of their present small achievements."

(3) In connection with the several history courses, and especially in connection with courses II and III, due attention should be given to Latin America and the Orient, especially Japan and China, and to great international problems of social, economic, and political importance to America and the world at large.

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[2] Kingsley, Clarence D., *The Study of Nations: Its Possibilities as a Social Study in High Schools. School and Society*. Vol. III, pp. 37-41, Jan. 8, 1916.

II. DETAILED DISCUSSION OF PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING HISTORY INSTRUCTION.

1. **The position of history in the curriculum.**—History, which has long occupied the center of the stage among the social studies of the high school, is facing competition not only from other branches of study, such as science, but also from other social studies. The customary four units, which have been largely fixed in character by the traditions of the historian and the requirements of the college, are more or less discredited as ill adapted to the requirements of secondary education.

In a recent address Miss Jessie C. Evans, of the William Penn High School for Girls, Philadelphia, said:

> There is a growing danger that the traditional history course will only be permitted to the college-preparatory student. I visited, the other day, one of the largest high schools in the country and found that the majority of the students took no history at all. The new definitions of culture and the new demands for efficiency are causing very severe tests to be applied to any subject that would hold its own in our schools.

This statement suggests certain questions:

2. **To what extent and in what ways are college requirements and life requirements mutually exclusive?**—In this connection the words of Prof. Dewey quoted on page 10 are repeated with an interpolation:

> If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future [in college or elsewhere], transformation of educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves.

The problem of articulation between elementary and secondary schools, on the one hand, and between secondary schools and colleges, on the other, would take care of itself if elementary school, secondary school, and college would each give proper attention to the needs of present growth.

3. **To what extent does an increase in the amount of history offered insure more universal or better social education?**—The historical training acquired by the pupils is not proportional to the number of courses offered. Whether pupils elect history or not depends, first, upon whether they want it; and, second, upon the demands of other subjects upon their time. Those who are concerned for the prestige of history in the school program will find that their gains by adding courses are largely "on paper." In small high schools more than two or three units of history are impracticable; and in large schools few pupils take more than two units of the subject, these frequently disconnected; the majority take only what is required. Two or three units of history are ample in these years, provided they are adapted

to the needs of the pupil and have been preceded by the cycle which this report recommends for the years VII-IX (see p. 11).[ee]

4. **What "tests" must the history course meet if it is "to hold its own in our schools"?**—It is true that "the new definitions of culture and the new demands for efficiency are causing very severe tests to be applied" to all subjects, and the traditional type of history is in danger because it fails to meet the tests.

> The ideal history for each of us would be those facts of past human experience to which we should have recourse oftenest in our endeavors to understand ourselves and our fellows. No one account would meet the needs of all, but all would agree that much of what now passes for the elements of history meets the needs of none. No one questions the inalienable right of the **historian** to interest himself in any phase of the past that he chooses. It is only to be wished that a greater number of historians had greater skill in hitting upon those phases of the past which serve **us** best in understanding the most vital problems of the present.—(Prof. James Harvey Robinson, in The New History.)

The [boldface words] in this quotation are our own. It is the chief business of the maker of the course of study, the textbook writer, and the teacher to do what the historian has failed to do, viz, to "hit upon those phases of the past which serve us" (the high-school pupil) "best in understanding the most vital problems of the present." Further, "the most vital problems of the present" for the high-school pupil are the problems which he himself is facing now or which are of direct value to him in his present processes of growth.

Prof. Mace has made the following statement:

> To connect events and conditions with life as the pupil knows it will make history more or less of a practical subject. The pupil will see where his knowledge turns up in the affairs of everyday life. He will really discover how present-day institutions came to be what they are. Whenever or wherever he strikes a point in history, in Egypt, Greece, Rome, England, or even America, the point must be connected with modern life. Otherwise it may have only a curious or perhaps an academic interest for him, or it may have no interest whatever.
>
> This connection may be worked out in several ways. The Egyptians had certain ideas about immortality, and therefore certain customs of burial. The Greeks probably took these up and modified them. The Romans changed them still further, especially after the coming of Christ. The Roman Catholic Church made still greater changes. The Reformation introduced new conceptions of the soul after death, and to-day the great variety of ideas on the subject show the tremendous differentiations that have come since the days of old Egypt. Likewise, it shows how tenacious the idea has been—its continuity. How much interest is aroused if the student is put to working out this problem of the life development of an idea! What sort of history is this? It is neither ancient, medieval, or modern but all these in one. It is the new kind of general history—the kind that socializes the student. It makes him feel that history has some meaning when he sees ancient ideas functioning in the present.
>
> Not every idea in history lends itself to such treatment. Many facts have not preserved their continuity in as perfect a way, but seem to have lost it before modern life is reached. But there is another relation—that of similarity. The

> reforms of Solon in Greece and of the Gracchi in Rome, the causes of Wat Tyler's rebellion, the measures of Lloyd George in England to-day, and the social-justice idea of the Progressive platform in the Presidential campaign of 1912 bear striking resemblance to each other. While they can not be connected by progressive evolution, they are richly suggestive in the lessons they teach.
>
> Again, many events whose continuity we may not be able to trace have valuable lessons growing out of their dissimilarity. By making note of their contrasts we may see their bearing on modern life. The terrible Thirty Years' War, the Puritan Revolution, the Revolution of 1688, the American Revolution, and finally the French Revolution, present such striking contrasts as to give the student some notion of what might have been avoided for the betterment of the people. This means that when one of these upheavals is studied the rest should be made to yield their particular points of contrast, to the end that the student may see the lessons they present.

Another contribution to the discussion is the following, by Prof. Robinson.[ff] A portion of this is [printed in boldface] for future reference.

> One of our chief troubles in teaching history comes from the old idea that history is a record of past events; whereas our real purpose nowadays is to present past conditions, explain them so far as we can, and compare them with our own....
>
> While events can be dealt with chronologically, conditions have to be presented topically if they are to become clear. For example, we can select the salient events of the Crusades, and tell them in the form of a story; but the medieval church, castle, monastery, and farm have to be described in typical forms, as they lasted several centuries. The older textbooks told the events more or less dryly, gave the succession of kings, and the battles and treaties of their respective reigns. It was not deemed necessary to describe conditions and institutions with any care, and such terms as pope, king, bishop, church, baron, alchemy, astrology, witchcraft, were used as if every boy or girl of 14 knew exactly what they were.
>
> **A still unsolved problem is to determine what conditions and institutions shall be given the preference, considering the capacity of the student on the one hand and the limitations of time on the other. The committee should not undertake to pronounce on this matter, but should urge that teachers and textbook writers should be constantly asking themselves whether what they are teaching seems to them worth while....**[gg]
>
> All instruction is, so to speak, the function of three variables—the pupils, the teacher, and the textbook. Every teacher is aware that pupils differ a good deal according to their environment, and, as we develop industrial and other forms of special education, it will be necessary to select our material to meet the special needs of the pupils. As for the teacher, no satisfactory results will be obtained until he learns to outrun the textbook and becomes really familiar, through judicious reading or university instruction, with the institutions which he proposes to deal with. Teachers should learn to deal with their subject topically, and should not be contented with reading historical manuals, which are usually poor places to go for information in regard to conditions and institutions. They should turn to the articles in the Encyclopedia Britannica and other similar works and to special treatments.

5. **Two questions at issue.**—There is general agreement that history, to be of value in the education of the boy or girl, must "function in the present." Disagreement arises over two questions: (1) What is meant by "func-

tioning in the present"? (2) How shall the material of history be organized to this end?

(1) **What is meant by functioning in the present?**—There are two interpretations of this phrase: (a) The sociological interpretation, according to which it is enough if history be made to explain present conditions and institutions; (b) the pedagogical interpretation, according to which history, to be of value educationally, must be related to the present interests of the pupil. Many present-day problems are as far removed from the interests and experience of youth as if they belonged to the most remote historical epoch. It is not that a past event has its results, or its counterpart, or its analogy, or its contrast, in the present that gives it its chief educational value, but that it "meets the needs of present growth" in the pupil. We have learned to use hero stories and pioneer stories from any epoch of history in certain elementary grades because there is something in children that makes them want such stories as food for growth.

Recent periods are doubtless richer in materials of present application than the more remote periods. But children have very little chronological perspective. As one star seems as far away as another, although millions of miles may intervene between them, so American colonization may seem as remote to the child as the period of Athenian supremacy. The relative educational value of the wars of 1775, 1812, and 1861 does not depend upon their remoteness or proximity. It does not necessarily follow from the fact that trusts are a live, present issue, and negro slavery came to an end 50 years ago, that the slavery agitation preceding the Civil War is of less educational value than the agitation regarding the control of trusts at the present time.

Do not these considerations suggest a basis for a partial answer at least to Prof. Robinson's "still unsolved problem," stated above (p. 40), viz, "to determine what conditions and institutions shall be given the preference," and to his question, "What is worth while?" The principle may be stated thus: **The selection of a topic in history and the amount of attention given to it should depend, not merely upon its relative proximity in time, nor yet upon its relative present importance from the adult or from a sociological point of view, but also and chiefly upon the degree to which such topic can be related to the present life interests of the pupil, or can be used by him in his present processes of growth.**[hh]

The committee does not imagine, however, that by stating this principle it has solved the problem of the organization of the history course. It has only recognized a new and most important factor in the problem. By so doing, it has even made the problem more difficult, for there are now raised the new questions, What history does meet the needs of the child's growth? and, How may a given topic be related to the child's interest? Acceptance of the principle throws the problem largely back upon the teacher, for the questions just stated are questions that she must answer for her particular group of pupils, and can not be disposed of once for all by a jury of historians or sociologists. The problem is only in part one of selection of topics; it is also one of method of approach. A topic that may be infused with vitality by a proper approach though the interests of the children may become perfectly barren of results through lack of such approach (see discussion of the question of "Approach" in relation to the teaching of civics on p. 23 of this report).

Illustrations of the principle.—The following type lessons illustrate more or less perfectly, the application of this principle. The first is given by Miss Hannah M. Harris, of the State Normal School at Hyannis, Mass., and illustrates both the selection of topic and the method of approach with reference to the pupils' immediate interest.

> Ordinarily we have regarded the War of 1812 as not closely related to those interests (of the children) nor essential to the development of the central theme of the term, "The building of the Nation"; hence we have passed over the subject rather lightly, and have saved time for the more intensive study of the Revolution and the making of the Constitution, topics which are necessary to the central theme, and which can be made real to the children by means of their activities in a school club. This club makes and amends its own constitution, earns money, votes its expenditures; in short, manages its own affairs on democratic principles, and so brings home to its members the meaning of certain political terms and situations involved in these topics, such as taxation without representation, majority rule, compromises, etc.
>
> In 1915, however, the subject of the War of 1812 appeared to us in a different light. The children were reading headlines in the newspapers in which the word "neutrality" had a conspicuous place. They heard the word repeated at home and on every street corner, and were beginning to use it themselves, though with but vague notions of its meaning. Consequently the preceding topic in the history course was less fully treated than in ordinary years, and time was appropriated for a study of the War of 1812.
>
> The study was approached in the following way: What is meant by the expression "a neutral nation," "belligerent nation"? What nations are now belligerent? Which ones neutral? What are some of the ways in which the citizens of a neutral nation come into contact with the citizens or with the government of a belligerent nation? (Some of the answers: "Buy things of them"; "sell them goods"; "have our goods carried in their ships"; "travel in their countries.") So long as any nation remains neutral, what rights have its citizens in these matters and others? (So far answers all came from previous knowledge, casually acquired information.) Now, with some suggestions from the children and explanations from the teacher, the following outline was put upon the blackboard:
>
> The main rights of neutrality:
>
> 1. To live peaceably at home; i.e., not to be forced to take sides in the war or to have life or property endangered by it.
>
> 2. To trade with any nation. Exceptions: Entrance to blockaded ports; dealing in contraband goods.
>
> 3. To travel peaceably on the high seas or anywhere permitted by existing treaties. Exceptions: Places in which belligerents are actually engaged in warfare.
>
> The questioning was then resumed: Do neutral nations desire to keep up friendly relations with belligerents? What mistake on the part of a neutral nation may interfere with these friendly relations? (Showing more favor to one belligerent than to another.) Why does President Wilson ask us to be neutral (impartial, calm) in our talk and actions toward citizens of belligerent nations? What act on

the part of a belligerent nation may interrupt these friendly relations? (The violation of any one of the rights of neutrality.)

The members of the class were referred to the textbook to find out how the United States tried in 1812 to maintain its neutrality and how it failed. The account in the textbook was found all too brief to satisfy the pupils' inquiries, and the study of the war was neither dry nor out of touch with reality.

Miss Clara G. Dilks, of Philadelphia, furnishes the following plan for a series of lessons on "Athens—the City Beautiful." Whatever we may eliminate from Greek history, it should not be Greek art, which has so profoundly influenced the world. But it is not merely that the influence of Greek art survives in modern architecture that gives this phase of Greek history its value; it is the additional fact that the aesthetic interest of children is strong and needs cultivation. We may assume that the following lessons had for a point of departure live interest on the part of the pupils in the beauty of their surroundings, perhaps specifically in a proposed city-planning movement or the erection of a new public building or, on the other hand, in the prevalence in the community of unsightly architecture.

Object of lesson:

1. To visualize Athens.
2. To stimulate the pupils to observe their own surroundings in comparison.
3. To give knowledge of the possibility of combining beauty and utility in building.

Method of assignment:

1. Give an outline that will fit the books available and the time of the pupils:
    - (a) Topography of the Acropolis. Caution: Avoid affording pupils opportunity of making a mere catalogue of names. Let them imagine themselves visitors to the city.
    - (b) Chief orders of Greek architecture.
    - (c) Chief buildings—plan, material, decorations.
2. Assign problems, such as—
    - (a) Examination of a principal street in the pupils' own community for—
        - (1) Kind of buildings.
        - (2) Uniformity in architectural scheme.
        - (3) Attempts to combine beauty with utility.
    - (b) Study of municipal buildings for—
        - (1) Grouping or isolation.
        - (2) Location with reference to business and residence sections.

Plan for teaching:

1. Question class as to characteristics of the Greeks that would influence their art.

    Compare characteristics of Americans and Greeks and draw conclusions.
2. Discuss orders of Greek architecture, compare them, and cite famous examples.

    Make use of pictures.
3. Application of orders to buildings.

4. Study of buildings. Use pictures.
   Note relative locations.
   Adaptation of form of buildings to geographical features.
   Decoration.
   Deduction as to whether architecture corresponds with the characteristics of the Greeks as noted.
5. Have pupils discover qualities in Greek architecture adaptable to all ages and countries.
6. Experience meeting regarding results of investigations by pupils in their own community and conclusions as to—
   (a) Presence of Greek influence.
   (b) Evidence of definite policy for beautifying pupils' own city. Compare with other American cities and European cities.
7. Conclusion of lesson:
   Is it possible to adapt the idealistic Greek art to a modern commercial city? Consider modern bridges, street lamps, public buildings.
   What is the best means of attaining this end?
   Development of general knowledge of good models and an artistic sense.
   Use of trained "city planners," art juries, etc.

Miss Blanche E. Hazard,[ii] of the department of home economics in the New York State Agricultural College, describes some work done by her when in the High School of Practical Arts, Boston. Her pupils were girls chiefly representing the "working classes." Neither they nor their parents looked with much favor upon an education that was not intensely "practical" from their point of view. Ancient and medieval history made little appeal to them until—

> The study of the medieval craft guilds and of the development of crafts and commerce was taken up in connection with a close-at-hand examination of the present industries or occupations of their parents or other members of their families. Each father initiated his own daughter into the special mysteries of his craft; if a hod carrier, he sometimes had her await his freedom on Sunday, and then took her over the building where he was at work. The history of the craft, its problems, advantages and disadvantages, technique and conditions, in early times and in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, were studied.
>
> Not only did the girls take the keenest interest in this work, but their fathers also became so interested to know that Greeks and Romans, Germans in the thirteenth century, and Englishmen for the past ten centuries had been tailors, shoemakers, masons, or greengrocers, and to learn of their wares, tools, and methods, and that there was a happy interchange of facts of past and present between father and daughter.
>
> Six weeks were allowed for the work in this special industry and an oral report was made to the class. In some years, from 200 girls there would come reports on 75 different industries and occupations. Meanwhile instruction was given regarding general typical industries, such as weaving, printing, lumbering, etc.
>
> The students became keen observers and asked foremen and guides intelligent questions. They came to have decided ideas as to monotonous work and dangerous occupations. They had in hand the history of the industries before and after the introduction of machinery; with and without the protection of legisla-

> tion. From the medieval craft guild to the present trade union faith and tenets, became an interesting mental road of travel for them, and linked the far-off history work in their vocational school with their fathers' daily life and interests.

These three-type lessons illustrate the application to particular cases of the principle that history to function properly in the present must meet the needs of present growth in the pupils.

(2) **How shall the course in history be organized for the purposes of secondary education?**

> Each new writer of a textbook is guided, consciously or unconsciously, in his choice of topics by earlier manuals which have established what teachers and the public at large are wont to expect under the caption "history."
>
> Until recently the main thread selected was political. Almost everything was classified under kings' reigns, and the policy of their government, and the wars in which they became involved were the favorite subjects of discussion....Political history is the easiest kind of history to write; it lends itself to accurate chronological arrangement just because it deals mainly with events rather than with conditions. (Prof. Robinson, in The New History, chapter on "History for the Common Man," p. 136.)

The substitution of a sociological point of view for that of the mere annalist has led to the introduction of new threads of human progress and the subordination of wars and political policies. It has also led to a partial, but only partial, breaking down of the purely chronological basis of organization. But no substitute for the chronological organization of history has been found that adequately meets the conditions and needs of secondary education.

It is not meant to suggest that chronology can be disregarded. The gradual and orderly evolution, step by step, of institutions and conditions is of the very essence of history. It would be impossible, were it thought desirable, to eliminate this element from historical study. But the principle of organization is antiquated which results in what some one has called the "what-came-next" plan of treatment, a mere succession of events; in the building of United States history on the framework of "administrations," and of English or Roman history on that of "reigns"; and in the organization of the entire history course in such a way that the pupil studies "ancient" history this year, "medieval" history next year, and "modern" history the year following—provided, indeed, that he happens to begin his history this year and continue it consecutively next year and the year following, which is by no means invariably true.

If, now, we accept the "pedagogical" interpretation of the principle that history must function in the present, namely, that history to be of educational value must relate to the present interests of the pupil, or meet the needs of present growth, in addition to explaining present-day conditions and institutions according to the sociological interpretation, what effect may this have upon the organization of the history course?

A statement by Miss Hannah M. Harris, of the State Normal School, at Hyannis, Mass., bears directly upon this question:

> The moment we cut loose from the old method of trying to teach all the historical facts which may happen to be found between the covers of the textbook, the question of how to organize the material of history becomes an urgent one. The student of sociology desires to organize the subject matter primarily to exhibit some important phase or phases of the social evolution of the race or nation or of some smaller group. The student of children and their needs desires to start with their present interests and to select from the story of the past only such fragments as bear so close a relation to these interests that they are capable of being in some real sense understood by the children, and of proving incentives to further profitable interests and activities on their part. This second plan, if logically carried out, would leave the entire record of the past open as a field for selection at any stage of the child's education, and would thus impose upon the teacher a task immensely difficult if not impossible.
>
> These two plans have a common purpose to make the study of history yield the help it should give in the social education of children and young people. Is it not possible to combine successfully certain features of both proposals?
>
> Can we not heed the suggestions of modern pedagogy by starting with those contemporaneous matters in which the children have already some interest, and from this study of present-day community affairs be led naturally back into the past to find related material which is significant to the children because of this relationship, and valuable to them because it serves to make clearer or more interesting the present situation?
>
> At the same time, can we not limit the field of history from which selection of material is to be made for any one year of school work to some one historical epoch, permitting the teacher free choice within these limits, the choice to be guided both by the present interests of the children and by the general rule that any historical facts considered must have some bearing upon the main lines of growth which are characteristic of the period being studied?

Plan of the University of Missouri elementary school.—One of the most radical experiments in the reorganization of history instruction to "meet the needs of present growth" is that of Prof. J. L. Meriam in the university elementary school of the University of Missouri.[kk] So far this experiment has been limited to the elementary school, but Dr. Meriam considers it a sufficient success to warrant its adaptation to the secondary school. He believes that "the present four units of history" in the secondary school are "quite out of date."

To quote from Dr. Meriam:

> The university elementary school gives no instruction in history as such, although a great deal of historical material is very carefully studied. This policy is in accord with our policy in other subjects. We teach no arithmetic as such, but we do a great deal of arithmetical calculation in connection with special topics. We teach no geography as such, but we become acquainted with a great deal of geographical material in our study of various industrial and social activities. We teach no language as such, but language is in constant use in our efforts to express to the best of our ability the ideas we have in various other subjects.
>
> History as usually taught is looked upon as a method of approach to the study of present-day problems. It is also used as a means of interpreting present-

day problems. Thus history is usually studied before present-day problems. Further, history is usually studied by showing events in their chronological order. In the university elementary school no such purpose is present.

For us historical material is studied merely to satisfy interests and to further interests in present-day problems. Such study also provides at times inspiration and suggestion for the further study of problems that are of immediate interest. Such historical material frequently excites interest in reading and thus incidentally furnishes the pupil with certain information that may be of value later. This, however, must be looked upon as a mere by-product.

Thus, with us the study of historical material follows, rather than precedes, the study of similar events in the present, and there is no occasion for taking up these events in chronological order. The immature pupil is not yet prepared to understand and appreciate development of institutions merely because he has not yet had sufficient experience with details. He is, however, interested in isolated events, here and there, especially those which are similar in character to events taking place in the present time that are of interest to him. Thus we need no textbook as a guide, but we use many textbooks as mere reference books. Thus we have no course in history to follow and no given amount of historical study to complete. Within the elementary school field the pupil is not ready to summarize and organize this historical study.

One special illustration may be sufficient. In our sixth grade the subject of transportation is considered in so far as it is a present-day problem. Some eight weeks are spent on such topics as railways, steamship lines, public highways and animal power, use of electricity in travel, the automobile, the aeroplane. In the seventh or eighth grade the same topic is considered, but in certain historical aspects. For example, the growth of railways in the United States and elsewhere. Here would be considered change in the extent of mileage, change in location of roads as affected by needs in various parts of the country, change in the character of engines and cars as influenced by inventions, improvement made in roads, bridges, railway stations, and the like.

Such study calls for: (1) much reading; (2) geographical study concerning the trunk lines and lines of travel; (3) arithmetical calculations, especially in the change of mileage and the cost of construction of roads and trains; (4) some very elementary physics in the study of the steam engine, air brakes, and the like; (5) drawing as a means of illustration; (6) composition, spelling, and writing as a means of expression; (7) "history for the common boy and girl." (See Robinson's "The New History," chapter on "History for the Common Man.")

"History for the common man."—The chapter in Prof. Robinson's book to which Dr. Meriam alludes in the last clause constituted an address before a meeting of school superintendents at which the subject of discussion was industrial education. Prof. Robinson introduced his address as follows:

> Should the student of the past be asked what he regarded as the most original and far-reaching discovery of modern times he might reply with some assurance that it is our growing realization of the fundamental importance and absorbing interest of common men and common things. Our democracy, with all its hopes and aspirations, is based on an appreciation of common men; our science, with all its achievements and prospects, is based on the appreciation of common things....We have come together with a view of adjusting our education to this great discovery.

> It is our present business to see what can be done for that very large class of boys and girls who must take up the burden of life prematurely and who must look forward to earning their livelihood by the work of their hands. But education has not been wont, until recently, to reckon seriously with the common man, who must do common things. It has presupposed leisure and freedom from the pressing cares of life....
>
> It is high time that we set to work boldly and without any timid reservation to bring our education into the closest possible relation with the actual life and future duties of the great majority of those who fill our public schools....
>
> History is what we know of the past. We may question it as we question our memory of our own personal acts and experiences. But those things that we recall in our own past vary continually with our moods and preoccupations. We adjust our recollection to our needs and aspirations, and ask from it light on the particular problems that face us. History, too, is not fixed and immutable, but ever changing. Each age has a perfect right to select from the annals of mankind those facts that seem to have a particular bearing on the matters it has at heart....
>
> So, in considering the place to be assigned to history in industrial education, I have no intention...of advocating what has hitherto commonly passed for an outline of history. On the contrary, I suggest that we take up the whole problem afresh, freed for the moment from our impressions of "history," vulgarly so called.

What Prof. Robinson suggests is that, given a group of boys and girls whose economic and social position is preordained to the ranks of the great majority of men and women "who do common things," the history instruction should be organized, not on the traditional basis of chronology and politics, but on that of their own immediate interests.

This is what Miss Hazard did in the case cited above (see p. 44). This is also what Dr. Meriam is doing—only he goes further. He maintains that, whether or not we know in advance that the pupils are to be "common men and women," they are at least "common boys and girls" with interests in the present. He would therefore organize all history instruction on the basis of these interests, selecting from any part of the past those facts that "meet the needs of present growth"; and he would utilize these facts at the time when the pupil has need for them in connection with any subject under discussion or any activity in progress.

Practical difficulties of radical reorganization.—It may be plausibly objected that, while such radical reorganization as that suggested by Dr. Meriam may succeed in a special experimental school under the direction of a Dr. Meriam and a well-trained, sympathetic staff, it could not succeed at present under the conditions of the ordinary school. Miss Harris refers to the difficulty (see p. 46, above) and proposes to meet it by a compromise between the "chronological" and "pedagogical" methods, restricting the field from which the teacher shall draw her materials in any given year to a particular historical epoch.

> The limitation of the ground to be covered makes it practicable for the average grammar-school teacher, who, of course, is not a specialist in history, to become very familiar with the possibilities of the history of the period in question, as a mine of valuable material. And it is only this familiarity on the teacher's part that will make this sort of teaching a success.

The difficulty to which Miss Harris here refers—unpreparedness in history on the part of the teacher—is perhaps not so much of a factor in the secondary school, especially in cities, as in the elementary school. Unpreparedness of the high-school teacher is likely to be of another kind, namely, unpreparedness in the art of teaching. The college-trained high-school teacher may be a specialist in his subject, but have no training whatever as a teacher.

This unpreparedness of teachers, the lack of suitable textbooks, natural conservatism, and the opposition of those whose chief apparent interest is to maintain the supremacy of a "subject," or who see in the traditional methods of history instruction a means of "culture" that the schools can not dispense with, cause school authorities and teachers to hesitate "to work boldly and without timid reservation," or to "take up the whole matter afresh, freed...from the impression of 'history'...so called," and to seek rather to modify the existing course of study, incorporating in it as much as possible of the new ideas in the hope that as they prove their worth they will gain favor and open the way for further improvement. The committee has taken account of this fact in arriving at its conclusions, and has made its recommendations (pp. 33-37) in the hope that they will stimulate initiative and experiment rather than discourage effort at immediate improvement.[11]

(C) PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY—ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, POLITICAL.

It is generally agreed that there should be a culminating course of social study in the last year of the high school, with the purpose of giving a more definite, comprehensive, and deeper knowledge of some of the vital problems of social life, and thus of securing a more intelligent and active citizenship. Like preceding courses, it should provide for the pupils' "needs of present growth," and should be founded upon what has preceded in the pupils' education, especially through the subjects of civics and history.

1. **Conflicting claims for the twelfth year.**—One fact stands out clearly in the present status of the twelfth-year problem, namely, the variety of opinion as to the nature of the work that should be offered in this year. Not to mention the claims of history, the principal claimants for position are political science (government, "advanced civics"), economics, and sociology in some more or less practical form.

A profitable course could be given in any one of these fields, provided only it be adapted to secondary-school purposes. Three alternatives seem to present themselves:

1. To agree upon some one of the three fields.
2. To suggest a type course in each of the three fields, leaving the choice optional with the local school.
3. To recommend a new course involving the principles and materials of all three fields, but adapted directly to the immediate needs of secondary education.

The traditional courses in civil government are almost as inadequate for the last as for the first year of the high school. Efforts to improve them have usually consisted of only slight modifications of the traditional course or of an attempted simplification of political science. The results have not met the needs of high-school pupils nor satisfied the demands of economists and sociologists.

A justifiable opinion prevails that the principles of economics are of such fundamental importance that they should find a more definite place in high-school instruction than is customary. Courses in economics are accordingly appearing in high-school curriculums with increasing frequency. To a somewhat less degree, and with even less unanimity as to nature of content, the claims of sociology are being pressed.[mm] A practical difficulty is presented by the resulting complexity of the course of study. The advocates of none of the social sciences are willing to yield wholly to the others, nor is it justifiable from the standpoint of the pupil's social education to limit his instruction to one field of social science to the exclusion of others. The most serious difficulty, however, is that none of the social sciences, as developed and organized by the specialists, is adapted to the requirements of secondary education, and all attempts to adapt them to such requirements have been obstructed by tradition, as in the case of history.

Is it not time, in this field as in history, "to take up the whole problem afresh, freed...from the impressions of" the traditional social sciences?

2. **Relation to preceding courses.**—The suggestion that follows with reference to the last-year course of social study must be considered in the light of the recommendations for the preceding years. The courses in community civics and in history, if developed along the lines suggested in this report, are rich in their economic, sociological, and political connotations. Even if no provision be made in the last year for the further development of the special social sciences, the committee believes that its recommendations for the preceding years still provide as never before for the education of the pupil regarding the economic and social relations of his life.

3. **Concrete problems in varied aspects.**—The only feasible way the committee can see by which to satisfy in reasonable measure the demands of the several social sciences, while maintaining due regard for the requirements of secondary education, is to organize instruction, not on the basis of the formal social sciences, but on the basis of concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil.

In other words, the suggestion is not to discard one social science in favor of another, nor attempt to crowd the several social sciences into this year in abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life, and in their several aspects, political, economic, and sociological. These problems or issues will naturally vary from year to year, and from class to class, but they should be selected on the ground (1) of their immediate interest to the class and (2) of their vital importance to society. The principle suggested here is the same as that applied to the organization of civics and history.

4. **Illustrations.**—In actual life, whether as high-school pupils or as adults, we face problems or conditions and not sciences. We use sciences, however, to interpret our problems and conditions. Furthermore, every problem or condition has many sides and may involve the use of various sciences. To illustrate the point we may take the cost of living, which is a vital problem from the standpoint of the individual and of society, and may readily have been forced upon the interest of the pupil through changes in mode of life, curtailment of allowance, sacrifice of customary pleasures, change in plans for education, etc. This problem involves, on the economic side, such fundamental matters as values, prices, wages, etc.; on the sociological side, such matters as standards of living, birth rate, etc.; on the political side, such matters as tariff legislation, control of trusts and the like, and the appropriate machinery of legislation, law enforcement, and judicial procedure.

The problem of immigration might impose itself upon attention for any one of a number of reasons. It will have been touched upon in an elementary way in community civics, and doubtless will have come up in a variety of ways in connection with history; but it may now be considered more comprehensively, more intensively, and more exhaustively. One of the chief aims should now be to organize knowledge with reference to the economic, sociological, and political principles involved.

Economic relations of immigration:

Labor supply and other industrial problems (on the side of "production").

Standards of living, not only of the immigrants, but also of native Americans as affected by immigration (on the side of "consumption").

Relation to the problem of land tenure in the United States.

Sociological relations of immigration:

Movements and distribution of population; congestion in cities; etc.

Assimilation of immigrant population; admixture of races.

Vital statistics, health problems, etc.

Educational and religious problems involved.

Social contributions of immigrants; art, science, ethics.

Political and governmental relations of immigration:

Political ideals of immigrants; comparison of their inherited political conceptions with those of the country of their adoption.

Naturalization; its methods, abuses, etc.

The courts in the light of the processes of naturalization.

Administration of immigration laws.

Defects and inconsistencies in the methods of our Government as shown in legislation regarding immigrants and in the administration of the laws.

Problems of municipal government arising from or complicated by immigration.[nn]

A study or series of studies of the type here suggested, developing from concrete issues, would afford opportunity to go as far as occasion demands and time allows into the fundamental economic and political questions of the time. In the field of political science, for example, problems can readily be formulated on the basis of particular cases involving a study of legislative methods of Congress and of State legislatures; the powers and limitations of Federal and State executives; judicial machinery and procedure; lack of uniformity in State legislation and its results; weakness of county government; comparison of administration of cities in Europe, South America, and the United States, etc.

There has not yet been the same insistent demand for sociology as a science in the high school that there has been for economics and the science of government. But there are many questions and principles of a more or less purely sociological character that are just as important for the consideration of a high-school boy or girl as many others of a more or less purely economic or political character. A course of the kind suggested by the committee should doubtless afford opportunity for some consideration of such vital social institutions as the family and the church. These institutions will, it is hoped, have been studied in some of their aspects and relations in connection with history courses and in community civics, but they may now be considered from different angles, the point of departure being some particular problem in the foreground of current attention, such as, for example, the strength and weakness of the church as a socializing factor in rural life, etc.

Again, there are certain facts relating to the "social mind" for which the high-school boy and girl are quite ready, provided the study has a sufficiently concrete foundation and a sufficiently direct application. Any daily paper, indeed the life of any large school, will afford numerous incidents upon which to base a serious consideration, for example, of the impulsive action of "crowds" in contrast with the deliberative action of individuals and of the consequences of such action in social conduct. The power and effects of tradition are another phenomenon of social psychology fully as worthy of study in the high-school as many of the other social facts and laws that seem indispensable; it is not necessary to go farther than the curriculum which the pupil is following and the methods by which he is instructed to find a starting point for a discussion of this question and abundant material for its exemplification.

These two particular illustrations of expressions of the "social mind"[oo] are taken from a description of the social studies in the curriculum of Hampton Institute.[1] It may be said in passing that this committee has found no better illustration of the organization of economic and sociological knowledge on a problem basis, and of the selection of problems for study with direct reference to the pupils' immediate interests and needs than that offered in the work of this institution.

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[1] Jones, Thomas Jesse. "Social Studies in the Hampton Curriculum." Hampton Institute Press, 1908.

5. **Summary of reasons for the proposed course.**—In making its suggestion for this study of concrete problems of democracy in the last year of the high school the committee has been particularly influenced by the following considerations:

(1) It is impracticable to include in the high-school program a comprehensive course in each of the social sciences. And yet it is unjust to the pupil that his knowledge of social facts and laws should be limited to the field of any one of them, however important that one may be.

(2) The purposes of secondary education and not the intrinsic value of any particular body of knowledge should be the determining consideration. From the standpoint of the purposes of secondary education, it is far less important that the adolescent youth should acquire a comprehensive knowledge of any or all of the social sciences than it is that he should be given experience and practice in the observation of social phenomena as he encounters them; that he should be brought to understand that every social problem is many-sided and complex; and that he should acquire the habit of forming social judgments only on the basis of dispassionate consideration of all the facts available. This, the committee believes, can best be accomplished by dealing with actual situations as they occur and by drafting into service the materials of all the social sciences as occasion demands for a thorough understanding of the situations in question.[PP]

(3) The principles upon which such a course is based are the same as those which have been successfully applied in community civics and, to some extent in isolated cases, to the teaching of economics, sociology, and even history.

6. **Experiment urged.**—The committee believes, however, that it should at this time go no further than to define principles, with such meager illustration as it has available, and to urge experiment. It would especially urge that the methods and results of experiment, either along the lines suggested in this report or in other directions, be recorded by those who make them and reported for the benefit of all who are interested.[qq]

PART IV.—STANDARDS—PREPARATION OF TEACHERS—AVAILABILITY OF MATERIAL.

I. STANDARDS BY WHICH TO TEST METHODS.

While the following statement[1] was made originally with specific reference to the teaching of civics, the committee sees in it a general application to all of the social studies.

> While we are discussing ways and means of making the teaching of civics more effective, is it timely to consider by what standards we are to judge what is effective and what is not? If I examine your proposed course in civics, on what grounds shall I say that it is good or bad? If I visit your class and pronounce your teaching excellent or poor, by what standards do I estimate the value of your work? Why should you accept my judgment?. . . . Can standards be formulated so that we may have a common basis for comparison, and . . . so that any teacher may put her work to the test from day to day, or from week to week, and see, not whether it conforms to the opinions of some one, but whether it measures up to clearly recognized criteria?
>
> There are those who say that we can not measure the results of teaching with a yardstick or a bushel measure. Neither can we so measure electricity or light. Nor, for that matter, do we measure potatoes with a yardstick nor cloth by the bushel. The standard must be appropriate to the commodity or force.
>
> Those who say that the results of civics teaching can not be seen or measured until later years fall into one of the errors that have hindered the progress of civic education. This is the error of assuming that the child will be a citizen only at some future time; of forgetting that he is a citizen now, with real civic relations and interests. Civic education is a process of cultivating existing tendencies, traits, and interests. The gardener who cultivates a plant will, it is true, not know until the fullness of time how much fruit it will bear. Then he may measure his results by the bushel. But as he cultivates the plant day by day he appraises its growth by standards clearly recognized by all gardeners, and he varies his treatment according to the signs. rr
>
> Civic education is . . . a cultivation of civic qualities which have already "sprouted", and which will continue to grow under the eyes of the teacher . . . . The first step is to define the civic qualities whose resultant we recognize as good citizenship, and whose cultivation should be the aim of civics teaching. . . .
>
> First in importance is interest in one's civic relations. . . . Bad citizenship is more often due to lack of interest than to lack of knowledge. . . . It follows that it should be an important part of civic education to cultivate an abiding civic interest. . . . The only way to do this is to **demonstrate** that these relations **are** of vital moment to the individual. The present interest of the child must be kept in mind, and not his probable or possible interest of 10 years hence. . . .

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[1] Extract from an address by Arthur William Dunn on "Standards by which to Test the Value of Civics Instruction."

1. Civics teaching is good in proportion as it makes its appeal definitely and constantly to the pupil's own present interest as a citizen.

Interest is closely allied to motive. But real or apparent interest may lead to the setting up of wrong motives. . . . Good citizenship can only grow out of right motives. It follows that it should be a part of civic education to cultivate right motives. Pupils should be led both to **want to know** about their civic relations and to **want to do** something as good citizens.

2. Civics teaching is good in proportion as it provides the pupil with adequate motives for studying civics and for seeking opportunity to participate in the civic life of the community of which he is a member.

Community of interests implies community of effort. . . . The proper conception of government is that of a means of cooperation for the common well-being. No man can . . . be effective in civic life unless his "teamwork" is good. The possession of a spirit and habit of **cooperation** is an essential qualification for good citizenship. . . .

3. Civics teaching is good in proportion as it stimulates cooperation among the pupils, and on the part of the pupils with others, for the common interest of the community (school, home, neighborhood, city, State, or Nation).

Given an interest in civic affairs, a right motive, and a willingness to work with others, a man's citizenship will not count for a great deal unless he is able to sift out the essentials from the nonessentials of a situation and to decide wisely as to the best method of dealing with it; and unless he has power to initiate action. . . . Civic education ought to include the cultivation of civic judgment and civic initiative. . . .

4. Civics teaching is good in proportion as it cultivates the judgment with reference to a civic situation and the methods of dealing with it; and in proportion as it cultivates initiative in the face of such situation.

The only test that we have been in the habit of applying to our civics teaching is the informational test. We have contented ourselves with asking, How much do the children know? A certain fund of information is essential to good citizenship. But mere knowledge . . . will not made a good citizen. Ignorance of government is more often a result than a cause of civic inefficiency . . . . The problem which confronts the teacher and the maker of the course of study is, How much and what kind of information should be acquired by the pupil? This question can not be answered by an enumeration of topics of universal application. But, in general,

5. Civics teaching is good in proportion as its subject matter is selected and organized on the basis of the pupil's past experience, immediate interests, and the needs of his present growth.

It is not pretended that the standards here suggested are the only ones . . . to be adopted; it is hoped that better ones may be evolved. . . . It is not to be supposed that every half-hour class exercise will measure up to all of them . . . . What is suggested is that these or other standards be kept in view by every teacher as guides that will determine, with something like precision, the direction that he shall take.

II. THE PREPARATION OF THE TEACHER.[SS]

Probably the greatest obstacle to the vitalization of the social studies is the lack of preparation on the part of teachers. It is in part a lack of training in the facts and laws of social life as formulated in history and other social sciences. This is particularly true in the elementary schools and in rural schools. But there is an equally serious deficiency in the art of teaching these facts and laws, and this is as prevalent in large high schools and in colleges as in elementary schools, if not more so.

1. In the high schools.—One of the necessary steps for the adequate preparation of teachers of the social studies is the development of effective high-school courses of social study, which it is the purpose of this report to stimulate. Even for those teachers who have had higher education, the foundation should have been laid in the high school.

2. In teacher-training schools.—In the second place, more attention should be given in teacher-training schools of all kinds to the social studies and the methods of teaching them. Whatever is done in these schools in the fields of the social sciences as such, it is recommended that courses be given on the general lines recommended in this report for high schools, at least until the high schools shall have made adequate provision for them. In teacher-training schools, however, special attention should be given to methods by which instruction in the social studies may be made to meet the "needs of present growth" in pupils of elementary and high school age.

3. In colleges and universities.—Many high-school teachers come directly from the college or university with excellent equipment, so far as subject matter is concerned, but with no training whatever in methods of teaching. It is therefore recommended that colleges and universities that supply high schools with teachers provide courses in methods of teaching, in the sense indicated above in connection with teacher-training schools.

4. In service.—It will not do, however, to wait until teachers are trained especially for this work before making a beginning in the reorganization of secondary instruction in the social studies. The training schools for teachers are inclined not to introduce new courses until there is an evident demand for them. This is hardly as it should be, for these professional schools should be the leaders in experiment and in the discovery of more effective methods. A few such schools have recently introduced courses in method of teaching history, civics, and other social studies, in which such principles as those suggested in this report are being discussed and tested. But not much can be expected in this direction until the demand has been created by the public schools themselves.

Moreover, it is wholly practicable to train teachers for this work while they are in service. This has been demonstrated at least in the field of community civics. Teachers who have had no previous training for teaching that subject and to whom its spirit and methods were wholly new, have within a year of actual work become both skillful and enthusiastic in the work.

The committee urges that more attention be given to instruction in the social studies, from the point of view suggested in this report, in teachers' institutes and summer schools.

Finally, it is unquestionably true that the most effective teaching of the social studies can be secured where there is a supervisor or director trained in this particular field.[tt] It should be the duty of such director, in the first place, to study the particular problems that the several teachers in his charge have to encounter; to give personal assistance to them individually and to hold frequent conferences with them for the discussion of general and special features of their work. In addition to this, one of the most important services to be performed by such director is to act as a mediator between the teachers and the realities of the community life about which they are instructing the children. He may establish through a single channel relations with public and private agencies and gather much material for the general use of all teachers, instead of leaving it for them severally to establish their own relations and to gather their own material. Of course, each teacher will necessarily and advantageously do much of this work for herself, but where it is a question of establishing working relations with a public official or the busy office of a corporation the element of economy of time for the latter as well as for the teacher must be considered. In the few cases where such directors have been provided the development of community civics has progressed much more rapidly and effectively than could be expected otherwise.

III. AVAILABILITY OF TEXT MATERIALS.

The question will inevitably be raised, Where are the textbooks organized according to the principles and with the content proposed in this report? And unless such textbooks are forthcoming, how can inexperienced teachers, or teachers trained according to traditional methods, be expected to adopt the new methods with any chance of success?

Unquestionably there are very few textbooks prepared on the lines suggested in this report or that will be of any very direct help to the teacher in working out a course on these lines. Unquestionably, also, the lack of suitable texts is second only to the lack of preparation on the part of the teacher as an obstacle to the rapid reorganization of the subject matter and methods of instruction in history and the social sciences. The lack of teachers trained in the new methods and from the new viewpoint is more serious than the lack of suitable texts, because a skillful teacher can do much to vitalize instruction in spite of a poor text, while an unskillful teacher, even with an ideal text, may fail utterly to catch the spirit and the viewpoint, without which no teaching can be really successful.

The committee is making its report under no delusion that its recommendations in their entirety can be promptly adopted in all schools with the opening of the next school year. It is fully conscious of the difficulties presented by tradition, in the viewpoint and training of teachers and administrators and in the organization of textbooks and other aids. But neither the lack of trained teachers nor the paucity of suitable texts should deter from setting "to work boldly and without any timid reservations to bring our education into the closest possible relation with the actual life and future duties of the great majority of those who fill our public schools."

The teaching of community civics has progressed far beyond the experimental stage. A few textbooks are in the field that more or less closely represent the spirit, the viewpoint, and the method of social study as conceived by the committee and that are in successful use in many places.[uu] Other literature is also rapidly appearing that will do much to familiarize teachers with the methods of the subject, and that should make it comparatively easy to introduce this subject, at least, very generally.

The committee suggests, therefore, that a beginning be made toward reorganizing the social studies by introducing and developing community civics, to which there are no insuperable obstacles. Not only will this give to the pupil a point of view that will in itself tend to vitalize later social studies, but it will go far toward suggesting to teachers also a viewpoint and methods that may gradually influence the teaching of other subjects.[vv]

As for history and the other social studies, there will probably be no lack of textbooks when once our ideas are clarified as to the direction in which we want to go. Publishers are very much alive to the situation and eager to supply books to meet a real demand. Teachers and authors are experimenting, and here and there methods are being developed that give promise of better things to come. Already some texts in history and economics have appeared that show the influence of the new point of view and that have in a measure broken with tradition. Such books will multiply and improve as time goes on. Nothing will do more to hasten the production of books to meet the new needs than a prompt and accurate reporting by teachers and supervisors of new methods tried, and especially of the success or failure of such methods. One channel through which to report such matters is to be found in the educational journals. The United States Bureau of Education will also gladly receive and disseminate information relating to the subject.

It is the belief of the committee, based on the present trend of development as the committee sees it, that in the fields of history and other social sciences instruction in both elementary and secondary schools is going to be organized more and more definitely around the immediate interests and needs of the pupils. It must therefore vary, within limits, from term to term, from class to class, and even from pupil to pupil. The future textbook will accordingly be less and less a compendium of information and more and more a manual of method and illustrative material for the teacher and a guide to observation and study for the pupil. The particular information that a pupil or teacher needs at a given time for the satisfaction of a particular interest or for the illumination of a particular problem must be sought in many books or in books of encyclopedic scope.[ww]

There are two tendencies in connection with the use of textbooks, especially in the teaching of community civics, in regard to which the committee feels the need of a word of caution. The first is a tendency to dispense with a textbook altogether. This is doubtless due in part to dissatisfaction with available books. It is due also, however, to a growing appreciation of the fact that community civics, to be effective, must be a study of real community life and not merely of the pages of a text. In so far as the abandonment of textbooks is due to the latter influence, it is a sign of a wholesome development. But there is danger of going too far in this direction. Not only theoretical psychology, but also actual experiment seems to prove that a textbook is a positive aid to study and to teaching, provided, of course, that it is of the right kind and is rightly used. There may be exceptionally equipped and talented teachers who can do better without a textbook than they would do if they followed explicitly any existing text. Even such teachers will be more successful if their pupils have in their hands a well-planned text; and the great majority of teachers are not prepared to organize courses of their own. The teacher who is not able to use a fairly good text and to adapt it to the needs of his pupils to their great advantage can hardly be expected to be capable of devising a course independently of a text that would in any sense compensate for the loss of the recognized value of the best texts available.

The second tendency referred to is that toward dependence upon texts descriptive of the local communities in which they are used and prepared locally. This also has its favorable aspect. It indicates a recognition of the value of local life and conditions in the pupil's education. But it has its serious dangers. In the first place, it sometimes indicates a confusion between "community civics" as described in this report and purely local civics. As already pointed out in this report (p. 24), it will be a misfortune if the civic study of the pupil does not comprehend the larger life of the Nation along with that of the local communities which compose the Nation. But more serious than this is the fact that the great majority of such local "texts" are as devoid of the real spirit of community civics as the old-time "manuals" on the Constitution.[xx] Some of them merely substitute a description of the mechanism of the local government for the discarded description of the mechanism of the National Government. Others add to this description of governmental machinery a catalogue of industries and public institutions, with more or less valuable statistical information. Still others are little more than a glorification of "our town" based too often on a false conception of "local patriotism." The fact must be recognized that comparatively few persons are competent to prepare a really good textbook even though it deal with purely local matters.

This is not to be taken, however, as a denial of the value of local materials compiled in available form. There is the utmost need for such materials, and in many places they are being collected and published to the great benefit of pupils and of the community at large. They constitute invaluable sources of information and are useful supplements to a good text. No better service can be performed for the schools by public libraries, chambers of commerce, women's clubs, and other civic agencies than to compile and publish in really available form local information of this kind. But it is rare indeed that such publications constitute suitable textbooks, or adequate substitutes for them.

II

Annotations on the 1916 Report

Annotations on the 1916 Report

a. The six-and-six plan was a very recent phenomenon. As noted in my accompanying commentary, it was really a 20th-century practice that was just beginning to burgeon and gain adherents in the period 1914 to 1916.

b. This is an interesting comment. The previous reports of the American Historical Association's Committees of Seven (1899), Five (1912), and Eight (1910), and the National Education Association's Committee of Ten (1892) all acknowledged their intellectual debt to previous committees and built upon them. This committee, despite meeting with representatives from other scholarly groups, chose to mention no other scholarly groups, chose to mention no other previous reports, and to ostensibly build a new foundation without acknowledgement of previous forays in this area.

c. This year is incorrect. The bulletin cited actually is No. 41 of 1913.

d. The 1915 Committee that authored this bulletin (Barnard, Carrier, Kingsley, and Dunn, all members of the larger Committee) acknowledged valuable suggestions from David Snedden, Commissioner of Education, Thomas Jesse Jones, and Jessie C. Evans. The latter two were, of course, also members of the larger committee. The former is credited by Saxe in *Social Studies in Schools* (pp. 68-69) as being much more important than the brief acknowledgement would warrant. It is obvious why this report is viewed as part of the larger committee report since there was a total overlap of membership and of ideological concerns. The table of contents of the 1915 Report is provided in the Appendix to this publication.

e. Briggs was one of the most well known advocates of junior high schools with which the Committee on Social Studies was so clearly enthralled. His *The Junior High School* (1920) was a defining book in the field.

f. A simple definition (though sexist in language), but a favorable view of people as the key to this term. Other definitions like Wesley's or those of *Defining the Social Studies* (Barth, Barr, Shermis, 1979) can be encased in this elegant 1916 wording.

g. This comment alludes to the struggles for supremacy in the field among groups like the AHA, the American Political Science Association (see APSA, Committee on Instruction, *The Teaching of Government*, 1916), the American Sociological Society (see "Tentative Report of the Committee on Teaching of Sociology in the Grade and High Schools of America," 1920), and the American Economics Association.

h. This should be written in bold face. Despite what people believe, the suggested courses are merely that—suggestions with minimal structure. The topics are to be left to immediate and local needs.

i. The choice of the Indianapolis course of study indicates the strong respect for and influence of Dunn. Dunn's position before being appointed

"Special Agent in Civic Education" for the U.S. Bureau of Education was as Director of Instruction and Training in Civics for the Indianapolis schools. He held this position from 1906 to 1910. Prior to that he was head of the department of history and civics at Shortridge High School in Indianapolis. He received a Masters degree in sociology at the University of Chicago, under Albion Small.

j. This intersection of interest and capability was central to Dewey's ideas as illustrated in *Child and Curriculum, Experience and Education*, among others.

k. Note the clear cycle plan; it was not just coincidence.

l. The concern was with school leaving as noted here. It was at this point that the committee makes its only efforts in the elementary curriculum area. Nothing is concretely proposed, though different curricula are praised. In the Indianapolis curriculum civics, geography and history are offered in all six years. The first three years have a process focus with more "fluid content." Grade 4 history covered explorers and inventors, geography focused on Indianapolis and Indiana primarily and civics did also. Grade 5 geography examined Asia, Australia, Pacific Islands, and Europe. History dealt with Rome, ancient civilizations, Japan, and some European history while civics was consumer oriented. Grade 6 civics was health, safety, and community oriented. Geography introduced Africa, South America, and the United States. History examined stories of heroism and pioneer Indianapolis.

m. This notion is reminiscent of how schools functioned for efficiency as elucidated in Callahan's *Education and the Cult of Efficiency*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1962.

n. Community arithmetic was concerned with a number of areas from which understandings arose. Problems evolve from dinner costs, budgeting, costs of power, saving money, industrial concerns, and service questions (total patient expense in a hospital or per capita expenses for example).

o. Herein is described a "smooth" combination that forms social studies.

p. A similar proposal was made by Howard Mehlinger in *Phi Delta Kappan* in a September 1989 article. "American Textbook Reform: What Can We Learn From the Soviet Experience?"

q. This concern with Africa and South America was apparently not adopted by America's schools. By the onset of World War II, 25 years later, ignorance in these areas was recognized and more attention to such geographic areas was urged. See my article "Some Possible Effects of World War II on the Social Studies Curriculum," *Theory and Research in Social Education*, V. 14 No. 4 1986, pp. 267-275.

r. *Ten Boys on the Road to Long Ago* by Jane Andrews, a popular book of stories in history was published in editions from 1885 to 1924.

s. Mentioned earlier and from which much was "borrowed" in whole chunks for this report.

t. The source of much concern on the part of Dunn and Jones who both wrote theses in Sociology, Dunn's on Galesburg (IL), Jones' on NYC.

u. Obviously still a great source of concern. Perhaps such suggestions can be implemented today.

v. This discussion, though brief, lays a foundation for a more global view, but in a most unusual way, through excessive nationalism. The logic here seems to be drawn from psychology; that is, until one loves oneself, one cannot love others. Thus, until one cares about one's country, one cannot care about others in the world. This analogy fails because one can feel a sense of community with other humans without loving individual nation-states.

w. Note that Wheatley was a member of this committee. Does this mean that the committee's research was limited by a lack of interest in pursuing other views or merely by the research tools available?

x. This example and others following are excellent illustrations of the social problems approach to social studies curriculum. Harold Rugg's successful curriculum was clearly influenced by this report in the view of social problems developed in his materials. See, for example, my article, "The Development of the Rugg Social Studies Curriculum" *Theory and Research in Social Education* 5, (December, 1977). Rugg was a member of this committee **after** this report was issued.

y. The claims here regarding children's reactions and learning are reminiscent of earlier reports on history curricula, of the expanding communities model, and of some modern proposals like that of Kieran Egan and the curriculum of the National Commission on the Social Studies Task Force Report, but none are based on research. They are reiterations of beliefs, neither tested nor necessarily true. See the following for more details:Report of the Committee of Seven *The Study of History in Schools*, (1899); The Committee of Eight, *The Study of History in the Elementary Schools*, (1909); J. Akenson, "Historical Factors in the Development of Elementary Social Studies: Focus on the Expanding Environments," *TRSE* Vol. 15, Summer 1987; Leriche, L., "The Expanding Environments Sequence in Elementary Social Studies," *Theory and Research in Social Education*, Vol. 15, No. 3, Summer, 1987; Egan, K. "What Children Know Best," *Social Education*, Vol. 43:2, 1979; and Report of the National Commission on Social Studies in Schools, 1989.

z. It is interesting how these topics—health, education, recreation, charities—have become non-existent in the social studies curriculum. Compare, for example, how important they were in the curriculum of Harold Rugg, of the *Building America* series by James Mendenhall and Paul Hanna. See Newman, R. E. "History of a Civic Education Project Implementing the Social Problems Technique of Instruction." Ph.D. dissertation, Stanford University, 1961, or the localized community focus of Fay Metcalf and Matthew Downey in *Using Local History in the Classroom*, 1982.

aa. Here is something that has clearly **not** been adopted by the social studies field, that is, the belief that recent history is worthy of more intensive study.

bb. Teachers **still** remain largely unprepared in their ability to make "a more careful selection of facts and events for emphasis." I would assert that this is not an area of concentrated effort in teacher training programs.

cc. The approach has met with continued resistance by chronologists.

dd. Kingsley was not only on this committee but chairman of the Commission and the Reviewing Committee. This was not just a political decision. The proposal for modern national study corresponded perfectly with the belief in studying more recent history in schools.

ee. This is reflective of the concern of the American Historical Association in gaining a greater foothold for history in the school curriculum. See Boozer, R. E. "The American Historical Association and the Schools, 1884-1956." Ph.D. dissertation, Washington University, 1960.

ff. Robinson's view was not reflective of all historians. It is also surprising since he was the only member of the 1916 Committee who had served on the Committee of Ten in 1892. This comment indicated how much more fully Robinson viewed history, social studies, and the school curriculum than did many of his historian colleagues.

gg. This was a clear call for research. It still could be today, since the answers to this problem are still not agreed upon.

hh. This response to Robinson is clearly based on the ideas and writings of John Dewey.

ii. Another member of the committee, who, when appointed, was at the High School in Boston, but who moved to Cornell during the life of the committee.

jj. Here the Committee tries to cover earlier disparaging of the chronological approach, by acknowledging that even problem-centeredness needs a framework. The frame of chronology seems most expeditious.

kk. Junius Lathrop Meriam received his doctorate at Teachers College, Columbia in 1905 where his dissertation, "The instructors in the New York State normal schools" was published in 1906 as *Normal School education and efficiency in teaching* (Teachers College, Columbia, NY). He was a professor of education at Missouri from 1905 to 1924. He was co-compiler with Alice Carey and Paul Hanna of *Catalog: Units of Work, Activities, Projects, etc. to 1932* (1932).

ll. These questions of proper preparation are still very relevant today and many groups are suggesting several different approaches.

mm. Here reference is made to the ASS report cited in annotation g.

nn. Many of these topics were the subject of volumes of the *Building America* series cited in annotation z.

oo. Jones was born in Wales in 1873 and came to Middleport, Ohio with his widowed mother in 1884. He studied at Washington and Lee, and received his A.B. from Marietta College in 1897. Jones then received both his

A.M. and Ph.D. at Columbia University in 1899 and 1904 respectively. Jones also attended the Union Theological Seminary in 1900 and received the degree of B.D. Jones came to Hampton from Columbia in 1902, where he became Director of the Research Department. At Hampton he became personally aware of the many problems Negroes faced and subsequently developed his Hampton social studies curriculum to address the needs of the students at Hampton. The Hampton social studies curriculum emphasized the study of present conditions: the course **offerings** were entitled: *Civics and Social Welfare, Economics and Material Welfare, U.S. Census and Actual Conditions*. The courses were designed to allow the students a better understanding of those factors which affected their immediate lives. The government, at any level, was presented as being the proper and best vehicle through which positive change would take place.

pp. This statement was (and is) a source of philosophical disagreement among various educators.

qq. Another call for educational research.

rr. These should be viewed in light of the newer ideas of civics content testing from the NAEP and the latest notions of teacher certifications being offered in various states around the county and by the proposed National Board of Teacher Certification.

ss. Good teacher training starts with good high school courses and continues through in-service. Only in the 1990s is this holistic approach being seriously seen and developed.

tt. Far too many teacher training institutions, school districts, and states believe that the generic appellation "teacher" is sufficient to overcome the specific demands of supervisors trained in each of the particular content fields.

uu. Obviously Dunn's textbooks were seen as fitting this definition, but few others were viewed as appropriate. James Weaver has analyzed these definitions in an unpublished paper (Pennsylvania State University, May 1990).

vv. This reorganization proposal clearly was successful in some areas and less so in others. New calls for reorganization are usually the same meal merely reheated. The Bradley Commission Report and the National Commission on the Social Studies Task Force are two prominent examples.

ww. What all this means is that a fluidness is demanded in the curriculum, a willingness to change, and then to change again. Few social studies teachers, or any teachers for that matter, have been able to practice this. Resistance to change, lack of training, and administrative intransigence all combine to thwart this.

xx. Reminiscent of the idealistic flow charts describing "How a Bill Becomes a Law" contained in most government/civics textbooks.

III

Commentaries

The Social Contexts of the Committee on Social Studies Report of 1916

by Murry R. Nelson

No work,in social studies has been consistently referred to over the past 75 years as much as *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, Bulletin No. 28 (1916) of the United States Bureau of Education. This volume, the Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association, has developed a mystique of its own and inspired tones of reverence when the work is mentioned.

Despite this awe, it seems safe to state that few social studies educators have ever seen this slim bulletin of 63 pages and even fewer have read it. Yet the Report is viewed as seminal in the foundations of the social studies. The recent spate of reports on history/geography in the schools places much of the blame for the woeful status of history knowledge on the erosive effect on history by social studies over the past 75 years. The reference, be it indirect, is to the 1916 Report.

Even though most social studies educators have failed to read the 1916 Commission Report, many of those same educators seem to "know" what is contained within that Report and see that knowledge as foundational in the existence of the very field of social studies. Is it any wonder that social studies educators are often at a loss to clearly present the underlying precepts of their field?

What is it that is known about the 1916 Report? The so-called conventional wisdom needs to be presented and assessed in the light of today's use of that wisdom. This essay will present the 1916 Commission Report in both educational and historic contexts. From whence did the ideas for this report emerge and why? The procedures and content of the Report are then examined with particular focus on the Commission members and their respective ideologies. The last section of this piece looks at the Commission Report today in light of the recent rash of curriculum reports and recommendations. It is hoped that by scrutinizing the 1916 Commission Report closely regarding its members, content, structure, historic and educational perspectives and impact, the reports of the past years may become more meaningful and clearly understood.

It is interesting that despite the great acknowledgment given to the ramifications of the 1916 Commission Report, few scholars have ever examined the Report closely. An exception is Michael Lybarger, whose 1981 dissertation, "Origins of the Social Studies Curriculum, 1865-1916" almost immediately became a standard in the foundational study of the social studies.

Unfortunately, rather than acting as a catalyst for more interpretive study of the Commission Report, it instead was seen by many as the ne plus ultra of this analysis. Saxe's dissertation at the University of Oklahoma and the recent book from that work, *Social Studies in Schools* (1992), is the first work to return to the 1916 Report and re-examine it in any depth. Lybarger, many felt, had "done" the Commission Report. What more should be examined regarding it? Surely the 1916 Report deserves more attention. One examination of the Constitution or even of *A Nation At Risk* hardly is enough. At the 1988 meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, the attention given to E. D. Hirsch's *Cultural Literacy* and Allen Bloom's *The Closing of the American Mind* resulted in more papers and symposia than have ever been devoted to the 1916 Report at any NCSS meeting. Part of the reason for that is because NCSS was not created until March 3, 1921; but nevertheless, this Report has endured and generated a body of folk knowledge within and outside the field of social studies education.

What folk knowledge has been handed down regarding this Report? First is the fact that this was the first NEA Commission report after a number of American Historical Association and American Political Science Association reports. Second was the first use of the term social studies, which had not been in popular use before this. Third was the curricular structure offered by the report—seventh grade would have geography, eighth and eleventh grades United States History, ninth grade would be civics, tenth grade European History, and twelfth grade a new course, Problems of Democracy. Fourth was the belief that this curriculum immediately fell into place in America's schools, and that's what we still see today. That's it. Through the miracle of educational reductionism, the ideology and tenor of the 1916 Report has vanished, the background has been distorted, and the flexible curricular structure calcified. The Commission Report deserves better. It is hoped that this work will build upon Lybarger's scholarship and stimulate more assessments of the Reports of this Commission.

The Commission Reports - Historical Background

At the time of the appointment of various committees of the National Education Association in 1913, a number of national and international issues were prominent and would have an obvious effect on the committee procedure and selection of content. The issues were often intertwined, and teasing them out may simplify their very complexities. Thus, one should not reduce these issues in the singular fashion that they are presented here. That will be done only for clarity.

First was the threat of war in Europe and the question of potential American involvement. At the time of the Committee's appointment (1913), tension was high in Europe, but war had not begun. During the two years that the Committee on the Social Studies met, the Great War began and grew to engulf most of the European continent. The factions for and against American involvement in Europe grew more vocal. Unlike World War II, there was often decided indifference toward the war in Europe among many Americans. The school curriculum had little response until the American entry into the war after the issuance of the Committee Report in 1916. Nevertheless, European affairs dominated the international section of major newspapers, and this may have had some effect on the Committee as it met from 1914 to 1916.

As Europe erupted in war, it also increased the great wave of Eastern and Southern European immigrants, most of whom came to America. These immigrants were in sharp contrast to the better educated western Europeans who had constituted the previous great wave of emigres. Much like many Asian and South American emigres today, these Europeans not only could not read and write English, many could neither read nor write any language. Some had no access to schools because of economic reasons or legislative fiat.

Overall, these emigrants were poorer, had less access to education or proper health care, and few contacts with the franchise. Many had been discriminated against in their own "homelands" for being minorities in a larger, majority-dominated society. These immigrants flooded America's shores and crowded America's large cities. The Committee was acutely aware of the "problems" generated through the arrival and settlement of these immigrants, and the Report reflects that awareness and concern.

Just as today, the arrival of new, unskilled immigrants made the exploitation of workers by business a common practice. Industry was still heavily labor intensive, and the immigrants provided the bodies for the sweatshops and factories that grew into larger corporations. The debate over child labor and subsequent child labor laws were passed at this time. Laws restricting work to a 54-hour week were also passed, and talk of a minimum wage was begun. Nevertheless, many workers were working more than 60 hours per week, children were the backbone of many industries, and industrial accidents left workers maimed or dead with no compensation.

In the urban slums, cold water flats with no toilets were common, and often were so overcrowded that diseases spread rapidly. Settlement houses and other private social welfare agencies arose to meet the needs of this exploited under class. Many of the members of the 1916 Committee were also members of the Municipal League, a socially concerned private organization found in cities throughout the United States.

The exploitation of workers at all levels led to the great rise in unionism from the late 1800s through the early 1900s. This struggle was fraught with death, destruction of property, and cries of public corruption. The Haymarket Riot of 1886 was only the beginning of threats, strikes, lockouts and violent union busting activities. As active members of the Municipal League with strong social concerns, it is highly unlikely that the

Committee members were not aware of the union activity, as well as the pressures to quash such activities by industrial/corporate forces.

The Commission Reports - Educational Background

Reducing the tremendous movements in American education from 1900 to 1916 to a few pages does a disservice to them all, but some should be highlighted, if only for purposes of recognition. From this milieu of concerns came many of the pressing issues that shaped the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

The rising tide of immigrant children had to be schooled not just for their own benefit, but for that of their parents and society generally. Knowledge of language, custom, health practices, and economic consumerism would be left to the schools to provide. All of these concerns and others would be taught to these young immigrants so that they would come to understand their civic duties as both citizens and landed immigrants. The survival of "proper" civic virtue was dependent upon the schools' initiative.

At the time of the Committee's existence, the finest public high schools were located in the heart of the cities. Suburbs, as they are known today, hardly existed, and smaller town high schools could not or would not provide the comprehensive curriculum available in the urban centers. Even in the city school systems, fewer than 20% of the elementary students went on to high school, often under 10%. To put this into today's terms, the dropout rate ran at anywhere from 80 to 90%. Recognizing that situation meant that the Committee's recommendations for high school were for a very small percentage of students. Thus, the important concerns were really for the seventh and eighth grade, or, in some places, the ninth.

This ambivalence regarding grade nine was due to the fact that the junior high school had just begun. The movement to junior highs would flower in the 1920s; and although the Committee was hopeful of this occurring, they could not be sure.

The calls for a middle school had been prominent as early as 1892 when President Eliot of Harvard had chaired the Committee of Ten which had suggested the earlier introduction of high school subjects. Soon after that, such institutions appear—Richmond, Indiana with a 6-2-4 plan in 1896, Baltimore with a 6-3-2 plan for the brightest students, Berkeley, California and Columbus, Ohio in 1908. By 1916, over 250 junior high schools had been established nationwide in cities large and small.

With the growth of junior high schools, curricular practices were altered. No longer would students leave after graduating elementary schools. Instead, in many schools grade nine would be the terminal grade and curriculum could be altered accordingly. The Committee of 1916 acknowledged this, and the overall schema presented was dependent upon it. This is often overlooked and will be discussed more in the next section.

The period 1913-1916 was the forerunner of the great growth of Progressivism in American education following World War I. Francis

Parker's ideas were furthered by Dewey and his work at the University of Chicago Laboratory School. Child-centered and society-centered factions of progressivism would emerge after the War; but in 1916, Dewey and the scientific approach to curriculum and schooling were favorably viewed by most of the school people on the Committee.

Progressivism in education seemed to fit naturally with the social progressivism of the late 1890s and the commensurate concerns with social welfare for all Americans. This concern led to more attention to "social study" in schools. Lybarger notes this concern in social scholars like James Gillette who authored "An Outline of Social Study for Elementary Schools" in the *American Journal of Sociology* in 1914, and especially Franklin Giddings of Columbia, who had direct or indirect contact with almost all of the Committee members (Lybarger, 1981, 175).

The Committee Report was the climax of over 20 years of various committee reports examining the schools and making recommendations for their curriculum. The first, published in 1894, was also under the aegis of the National Education Association and was known as the Committee of Ten. The subcommittee on History, Civic Government, and Political Economy was chaired by Charles Kendall Adams of the University of Wisconsin. This report, 40 pages in length, had over 30 resolutions proposed by a committee of four historians, three political scientists or political economists, and three school principals. This committee included Woodrow Wilson, E.G. Bourne, Jesse Macy, and Albert Bushnell Hart, and sought to codify the offerings of history in school. They stated that political economy and civil government should be coordinated with history and that English and geography should be brought into close study with history. Clearly, this is the kind of thinking that led to the creation of the term and concept "social studies;" but because it did not exist as such at that time, "strict constructionists" argue for history above all.

The Committee of Ten offered two curricular sequences for history, civil Government and political economy—a preferred and an alternative sequence. The preferred was an eight-year sequence beginning in grade five and carrying through grade twelve. It is shown below:

Grade 5 Biography and Mythology
Grade 6
Grade 7 American history and elements of civil government
Grade 8 Greek and Roman history with their oriental connections
Grade 9 French history
Grade 10 English history
Grade 11 American history
Grade 12 A special period to be studied intensively

The alternative six-year plan appeared as follows:
Grade 7 Biography and Mythology
Grade 8
Grade 9 American history and civil government

Grade 10 Greek and Roman history with their oriental connections
Grade 11 English history
Grade 12 American history and civil government

All study should be at least three 40-minute class periods per week for the entire school year.

This report hardly had time to be digested when another report was commissioned by the American Historical Association in 1896. This report, the Committee of Seven, was chaired by Professor Andrew C. McLaughlin of the University of Michigan. Overall, the Committee consisted of only one teacher, and this report was much more extensive than the previous committee's (1894). The volume runs over 250 pages, of which nearly half are appendices consisting of status reports on history in American secondary schools, elementary schools, German gymnasia, French lycees, English secondary schools, and Canadian secondary schools.

This Committee recognized the work of the Committee of Ten of 1894 which had a coincidental member with the Committee of Seven (Albert Bushnell Hart), but noted that this new work was the first to provide a status study and to begin to lay "the foundations for a common understanding" (Committee of Seven, 1899, 4). The committee would make recommendations for history study in the schools, but noted that "when all is said and done, only so much will be adopted as appeals to the sense and judgment of the secondary teachers and superintendents, and that any rigid list of requirements, or any body of peremptory demands, however judiciously framed, not only would, but should, be disregarded in schools whose local conditions make it unwise to accept them" (Committee of Seven, 4-5).

The Committee presented a four-year course consisting of four blocks or periods to be studied in the order presented by the Committee. The first block was Ancient History with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but including also a short introductory study of the more ancient nations up to about the year 843 and the Treaty of Verdun.

The second block would cover medieval and Modern European history from the end of the above period to present (1899).

Block three was to be English history from pre-Norman conquest to the present.

The fourth block was to be American history and civil government. In making this recommendation, the committee mentioned that American history "is given in the eighth and lower grades in probably the vast majority of schools..." (Committee of Seven, 38). Thus it would be best to offer it later in high school as an advanced subject "with the purpose of getting a clear idea of the course of events in the building of the American Republic and the development of its political ideas" (Committee of Seven, 74). It was thus deemed most expeditious to teach civil government and history as one subject rather than as two distinct subjects (Committee of Seven, 81).

The concerns of the elementary schools were addressed by the American Historical Association's Committee of Eight, which was constituted in 1905 and issued its report in 1909. The committee consisted of three superintendents, two members from normal schools, two from colleges, and the chairman, James Alton James of Northwestern University. This committee began by acknowledging the work of the Committees of 1894 and 1899 and noted that a member of the later committee, Miss Lucy M. Salmon, had also outlined a six-year course of study which was thought suitable for the elementary schools of the country" (Committee of Eight, vii).

The plan, as stated by the committee, was "based on the proposition that the history teaching in the elementary schools should be focused around American history" (Committee of Eight, x). The descriptions of the offerings of grades one through eight are as follows.

First and second grades should "give the child an impression of primitive life and an appreciation of the public holidays" (Committee of Eight, 1). They focus on Indian Life, Thanksgiving, Washington's Birthday, Local Events, and Memorial Day.

Grade three examines heroes, Columbus, Indians, Independence. Fourth grade was to deal with American explorers (i.e., explorers of North America), colonial Virginia life, colonial New England life, life in other colonies, local pioneers, Washington, New France and Franklin.

Fifth grade considered more of this, including narrative pre-revolutionary biographies; the Revolution and its heroes; the Great West; the Northwest; the New Republic and its growth; later great statesmen like Webster, Clay, and Calhoun; the Civil War; and Great Industries.

Grade six would introduce American history, then study Ancient Greece and her neighbors, the Romans, the later Teutons, trade between east and west, including the Crusades, the age of discovery, and European rivalries of that time.

Seventh grade would deal with the exploration and settlement of North America and the growth of the colonies until the close of the French and Indian War (Committee of Eight, 48). Eighth grade would be the history of the American nation. This entire report included lists of books for every section of each grade level for teacher and children's uses. The courses were presented in chronological outlines. The committee also noted that elementary civics should permeate the entire school life of the child. They, too, recommended that "civics and history should, so far as possible, be taught as allied subjects..." (Committee of Eight, 117). However, they also felt that specific civic instruction could not be successfully accomplished prior to **grade five**.

In 1907 another committee was appointed by the AHA to present a report on the Study of History in Secondary schools. This Committee (of Five) issued its report in 1911, by which time one of its members, Charles W. Mann, a professor of history at the Lewis Institute in Chicago, had died. Thus, only four members signed the report; and of those four, three, A. C. McLaughlin, now of the University of Chicago, Charles Haskins of Harvard, and James Harvey Robinson of Columbia, had been on one of the previous committees. The fourth member was James Sullivan, principal of Boys' High School in Brooklyn. The Committee of Five recognized this overlap and noted that they used the Committee of Seven report as their starting point. Thus, this new report contained both new recommendations for change and for implementing the work of the Committee of Seven.

Overall, the Committee of Five saw little to change from the recommendations of the report twelve years earlier. They felt that a substantially similar curriculum in history did exist nationally, and, with local modifications where necessary, that this was a good thing. In response, however, to a petition from the Headmaster's Association, this new Committee re-examined the block schedules of the Committee of Seven.

After much discussion, the Committee of Five proposed that the new schedule be as follows for the four years of high school:

A. Ancient History to 800 A.D. with the last 500 years to be passed over more rapidly.

B. English History to about 1760.

C. Modern European History, including introductory medieval history and English History from 1760.

D. American History and government arranged on such a basis that some time may be secured for the separate study of government. (In contrast to the recommendation of the Committee of Seven.)

From this milieu of recommendations, reports and assessments, the 1916 Committee on the Social Studies Report emerged. Shortly afterward (1921) another AHA committee (a second Committee of Eight) produced a report on history in the schools. Many of the results of this report and subsequent discussions are to be found in issues of *Historical Outlook* from February to June 1921.

All of these reports were acknowledged by A. C. Krey and his Committee of the American Historical Association in a 1926 report that called for a more detailed study of history and other social studies in the schools. This led to the formation of the exhaustive multi-volume study led by Krey that was published as the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies in the 1930s. Despite the time and effort spent, this report seems to have had little effect on social studies in school or out. Thus, it becomes more intriguing to recognize the "endurance" of the 1916 report in light of so many other reports issued before and after, including ones by the American Political Science Association, American Economic Association, and the American Sociological Association.

The Report of the 1916 Committee -
The Social Studies in Secondary Education

In 1910 Clarence Kingsley, as chair of the New York City High School Teachers Association's Committee on the Articulation of High School and College led that Committee to draft a report entitled "Declaration of

Independence of the High School from the College." This report "prepared the way for the notable report of the National Education Association's Committee of Nine on Articulation of High School and College" (Bunker, 1916, 72). This Committee, in turn, issued a report calling for a number of reconsiderations on the field and function of education in the high school (Kingsley, 1911, 560), including a working definition of a well-planned course.

The work of the Committee needed to be furthered, and "[b]y the time of the 1912 meeting of the Secondary Department, Kingsley had decided that the further work of the Committee could be facilitated by the addition of twelve subcommittees to work with the Committee of Nine" (Simmons, 1960, 140).

In 1912, the Committee on Articulation of High School and College of the NEA recommended the appointment of high school subject matter subcommittees, and these were appointed the next year by the NEA president at that time, Edward F. Fairchild, the president of New Hampshire College (now the University of New Hampshire). "Many people, including each State (sic) superintendent, were asked to suggest persons best qualified for this important work" (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1913, 7). The chairman was Thomas Jesse Jones, formerly of the Hampton Institute; and his statement of 1913 indicates his view of the Committee's work. He noted that "good citizenship should be the aim of social studies in the school" and that social studies should have direct responsibility for the social welfare of the community. Thus, only fact, conditions, and activities that contribute to human betterment should be taught (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1913, 16-17).[2]

It should be noted that in Clarence Kingsley's address to the NEA as chairman of the Committee on Articulation of High School and College, he asserted that,

> "...each committee has attempted to make these aims specific and to express them in terms of the effect to be produced upon the boy or girl either in the power to execute or in the ability to appreciate rather than in terms of subject matter to be mastered" (Kingsley, 1914, 483).

Thus, subject matter was to be a means to an end, and Kingsley went on to illustrate this point for various subject areas. In history, aims such as the appreciation of the development of the rights of the individual as achieved by the Anglo-Saxon were to be stressed. In civics, a point of view that would lead to cooperation with the local charity organization was preferable (Kingsley, 484).

This was consistent with Jones' statement that an aim of social studies was not exhaustive knowledge, but to see the significance of these (community) matters and to arouse a desire to know more of environment, i.e., "to think and live 'civically'" (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1913, 17).

The Committee on Social Studies had been meeting for approximately a year by the time of the 1913 bulletin. Many of their later recommendations were obvious in this earlier statement by Jones. The term "civics," for example, was defined as including "all the possible activities of the good citizen, whether as an individual or with private organizations or with the government" (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1913, 18).

Before proceeding further it is appropriate to examine more closely the individual who constituted the committee, their ideologies as best can be ascertained, and the procedures that resulted in the Committee Report of 1916. In that way the contents of the report may make greater sense, particularly when viewed against the backdrops presented earlier.

The committee was dominated, at least in published materials, by the thoughts of Thomas Jesse Jones and Arthur W. Dunn. Both men claimed in correspondence to have written the report (Lybarger, 1981). Jones had had a long career at the Hampton Institute before joining the Bureau of Education in 1912. There are references throughout the report to Hampton where Jones had established one of the first programs in social studies. In *Social Studies in the Hampton Curriculum* (1906) reprinted from a series of articles in the *Southern Workman*, Jones, who later led the Phelps-Stokes Education Fund, presented the foundations for his "civic" thinking. Jones' work at Hampton was almost exclusively with blacks and Native Americans who were "totally lacking in ideals of the home, the school, the church or the state" (Jones, 1906, 2). Jones saw Negroes as inferior, but not hopeless. He believed that they might become equal if they were to develop their race through proper economics, sociology, and civics. If they did, then the eventual eradication of prejudice was likely. Social studies was to provide the opportunity for the Negro and the Indian "to understand the essentials of a good home, the duties and responsibilities of citizenship, the cost and meaning of education, the place of labor and the importance of thrift" (Jones, 1906, 1).

Jones may appear to be a blatant racist with his evolutionary notions. Lybarger has shown the great influence of Franklin Giddings and his work at Columbia on the influence of climate on character. This was an underlying principle of much thought in social work at that time, and it was clearly influential in the Municipal League. In addition, however, Jones' thoughts and comments were consistent with the evolutionist writings of Lewis Henry Morgan, who envisioned human history as consisting of three major ethnical periods—Savagery, Barbarism, and Civilization—which were passed through sequentially over many years.

Jones laments the swift passage from slavery (savagery) to the demands of civilization. "The justification of this radical step is in the need of the Negro and Indian arising from the fact that they have been suddenly transferred from an earlier form of society into a later one without the necessary time of preparation" (Jones, 1906, 4). Thus, Jones pleaded for patience, moderation, and time. Negroes and Indians should work had at their own level rather than demanding more than they were capable of. Lybarger quotes Giddings as observing that, "[The Negro] still relapses into savagery, but kept in contact with whites he readily takes the external impress of civilization" (Lybarger, 175). Thus, blacks should listen to whites for guidance and character, not other blacks. This paternalism may seem admirable, but it is still racism, however benign. The view was reflected in the ideas of many of the committee's members.

William Arey of the Hampton Institute had been a colleague of Jones there and had also studied sociology as a graduate student at Columbia under Franklin Giddings, as had S. B. Howe of the Committee. Lybarger observed that Kingsley had taken a course from Giddings at Columbia (Lybarger, 1981).

J. Lynn Barnard had a Ph.D. from the University of Pennsylvania and was in the School of Pedagogy in Philadelphia as a professor of history and government. The school was attached to Central High School, whose principal from 1893 to 1920 was Robert Ellis Thompson. Up until 1892, Thompson had been a professor of social science at the University of Pennsylvania, where he espoused the same social Darwinist thought as Giddings (Lybarger, 1981, Chapter III).

George Bechtel, Frank Boyden, Jessie Evans, and J. Herbert Low had all "attended colleges and took coursework in sociology at institutions where Giddings' textbooks are known to have been used" (Lybarger, 124). This is speculative, but still makes the influence of Giddings and other social Darwinists a real possibility.

Henry Burch was another graduate of the University of Pennsylvania and "spent three years at the School of Pedagogy, before joining the Department of History and Economics at Central High School where he taught until 1912" (Lybarger, 114), the year that the Committee was originally appointed.

F. W. Carrier, as part of the subcommittee that authored the 1915 Bulletin, "The Teaching of Community Civics", had helped gather the data for said bulletin as did Kingsley, while participating in a course taught at Hyannis (MA) for teachers of community civics. The course was taught by J. Lynn Barnard; and although **not** part of that subcommittee, Jessie Evans did provide acknowledged suggestions in its writing. She also co-authored with Barnard two civics books based on the recommendations of the Committee on Social Studies.

Blanche Hazard, the other woman on the committee, was at the High School of Practical Arts in Boston when the committee was appointed, but had joined the faculty at Cornell, which had deep roots in the social welfare movement, by the time the report was published in 1916.

William T. Morrey, a history teacher, and William A. Wheatley were among the ten committee members who were also members of the National Municipal League, according to Lybarger (Barnard, Bechtel, Branson, Burch, Carrier, Jones, Kingsley, and Dunn were the others).

William H. Mace had a Ph.D. from Jena University in Prussia and an LLD from Syracuse. At the time of the Committee's Report, he had been retired for more than ten years as a professor of history and political science.

James Harvey Robinson, the only committee member who had served on a previous committee (that of 1892-94), was one of the most respected of American historians and at the peak of his career in 1912. He had written books on various aspects of European history, including the French Revolution, the rise of Prussia, Italian city-states, and western civilization.

Two of the original members of the Committee, H. M. Barrett, principal of East High School in Denver and Alexander E. Cance of Massachusetts Agricultural College (now University of Massachusetts - Amherst) left the Committee before the final report, and Bechtel, Carrier, Hamilton, and Kingsley were appointed some time after the formation of the original committee.

Arthur W. Dunn, the Secretary of the Committee, was also not an original committee member, but was employed as civic education specialist in the Bureau of Education. The Bureau had no specialists in secondary education (U. S. Bureau of Education, 1913, 5); but because the Municipal League paid part of Dunn's salary while he was at the Bureau, he was the exception to the above statement (Lybarger, 191). Dunn had studied sociology at the University of Chicago under Albion Small and, before coming to the Bureau, had been director of instruction and training in civics for the Indianapolis schools.

It should be clear that the National Municipal League had a great interest in the committee's work. The League was a non-partisan (though vehemently anti-Socialist) organization interested in reform through gradual and orderly change. Members of the League felt that the key to Municipal reform lay in education—first through adult social study clubs. Social studies to the Municipal League was "the simplified findings of social science and sociology whose dissemination will ameliorate the lot of unfortunate city dwellers in order to establish the necessary preconditions for Municipal reform" (Lybarger, 207).

In 1903, a League Committee on Civic Education (which included Dunn, Carrier, and Barnard) recommended that students study the present, not the past, and, if possible, the future. Despite appearances, Lybarger notes that there was "no evidence of conspiracy or desire to restrict choices available to children in American schools" (Lybarger, 265). Clearly the bulk of the Committee members had a very consonant ideology, and that will be discussed more freely below.

The Committee was appointed by the NEA president, but very few members of the Committee were NEA members. Kingsley and Jones were likely given their head to recommend appointees, and it is no surprise that the Committee was heavily weighted toward social reformers. The Committee met for three years for sessions of one or two days each and subcommittees met at other times. Jones noted in his preface that the committee had conferred with many persons not members of the committee and had met in conference with representatives of the American Historical Association and the American Political Science Association.

> Jones also notes in the preface a 1915 report written by a subcommittee and published as "The Teaching of Community Civics" (Bulletin 1915, No. 23). "This bulletin, which is referred to in the body of the present report, should be considered, therefore, as an integral part of the Report of the Committee on Social Studies." (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1916, 6). That 1915 Bulletin was, as mentioned previously, developed in the summer of 1914 when Dr. Barnard Conducted a course, at the invitation of the Massachusetts Board of Education, for teachers of community civics. The sentiments of the Commissioner of Education were consonant with the subcommittee that prepared the report. The Commissioner, P. P. Claxton, noted: "For good citizenship men and women must not only have good will, but an abiding interest in the welfare of the community. They must also have a working knowledge of social agencies, good judgment as to methods of social activities, and a more or less comprehensive understanding of fundamental principles of social life and progress" (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1915, No. 23, 5).

This bulletin was divided into three parts, the latter being bibliographical suggestions. Part I was "Aims and Methods in Teaching Community Civics." The good citizen was defined as "A person who habitually conducts himself with proper regard for the welfare of the communities of which he is a member, and who is active and intelligent in his cooperation with his fellow members to that end" (Bulletin, 1915, No. 23, 9). Stages in developing good citizenship were described and community civics defined and described. Since these duplicate the statements of the 1916 bulletin, they will not be given here. Eleven elements of welfare for study were listed in part I and described more fully in part II. These elements were the same given in the chairman's statement of 1913 and the final report of 1916. There were minor modifications, but the essence of this report was given in 1913 and developed in the subsequent reports of 1915 and 1916. The key elements of welfare for study were health, protection of life and property, recreation, education, civic beauty, wealth, communication, transportation, migration, charities, and correction.

The body of the 1916 Report begins on page 9 with a definition of social studies as "those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups" (Bulletin, 1916, 9). The aims of social studies were social efficiency, the cultivation of good citizenship, including loyalty to high national ideals. The Committee was, it stated, more interested in "socialization" than the number of social studies offered or the number of hours for each.

One of the most important statements in the introduction noted that,

> The Committee has refrained from offering detailed outlines of courses, on the ground that they tend to fix instruction in stereotyped forms inconsistent with a real socializing purpose. The selection of topics and the organization of subject matter should be determined in each case by immediate needs (Bulletin, 1916, 10).

The Committee went on to illustrate the importance of teachers' independent selections of data with a quote from Bulletin, No. 17 "Civic Education in Elementary Schools as Illustrated in Indianapolis" by Arthur W. Dunn.

Lest one believe that the social reformist bent of the Committee made it solely social reconstructionist in philosophy, the Committee's next concern clearly belies that. They noted that the high school course had been determined **too largely** by supposed future needs and called for more emphasis on present needs and past experience.

The next concern of the committee was curricular continuity, which was in some disarray with the advent of the junior high school. They noted that secondary education must now include grades seven and eight. As mentioned earlier, the junior high school plan flowered in the 1920s. One early rationale for junior highs and a 6-3-3 alignment was to keep students a year longer and school them in better citizenship (Briggs, 1920).

The committee explained what it called the "cycle" plan of organization—two three-year cycles preceded by an earlier six-year cycle—as coinciding roughly with the physiological periods of adolescence, but was "based chiefly upon the practical consideration that large numbers of children complete their schooling with the sixth grade and another large contingent with the eighth and ninth grades" (Bulletin, 1916, 12). This is a vital component of the Report easily ignored by later eulogists of it. The Report recognized a very real problem of early school leaving. Statistical data and many cultural anecdotes of the time illustrate the vividness of this "problem." The Committee of 1916 essentially reduced the vital content of social studies to European history. However, "[i]n both European and American history the selection of topics for emphasis should, within certain limits at least, be made to meet industrial or other specific needs" (Bulletin, 1916, 13), including local or current circumstances.

Part II of the Commission Report presented the seventh, eighth, and ninth grade curriculum with more discussion and examples. A number of combinations were offered for one-half or whole year coursework, all involving European history, geography, civics, and American history. A number of admirable references to the Indianapolis program (developed by Dunn) are made.

In addition, a discussion of **sixth** grade geography work is included to show the continuity of method from elementary to secondary schooling. According to the Committee, sixth grade geography was to be Africa and South America in the first half of the year and the United States in the second half. Sixth grade history roughly paralleled this. This is interesting, because these "observations" of sixth (and fifth) grade seem to have no basis in previous recommendations or cited status research.

The overall rationale for history offerings in grades seven and eight is taken from Dewey's notions of relating study to the child's world. "No history, therefore, should be treated as though it had meaning or value in itself, but should constantly be made to show its relation or contribution to the present" (Bulletin, 1916, 21). The close coordination of American history with community civics was intentional and reflected the earlier "elements of welfare" mentioned in Jones' work, the 1913 Bulletin statement, and the 1915 Bulletin on Civics by the subcommittee led by Barnard. These elements were listed on page xx earlier, but three additional topics appear in the 1916 Bulletin and focus on community agencies—12) How governmental agencies are conducts; 13) How governmental agencies are financed; 14) How voluntary agencies are conducted and financed.

The Committee, while seemingly sympathetic to the war in Europe, seemed to take a more isolationist view of the curriculum by referring to "internationalism" as sometimes having a tendency to undermine "our" sense of the importance of national solidarity. World community was fine in its place, but first "there must be efficient and self-respecting nationalism" (Bulletin, 1916, 26). The Committee did go on to concede the increasing state of world interdependence and need for world understanding. That was to be fostered through community civics.

The section, Civic Relations of Vocational Life, was probably most reflective of Jones and the Hampton curriculum.

> The chief purpose of the phase of the ninth-year work now being emphasized should be the development of an appreciation of the social significance of all work;...of the necessity for social control, governmental and otherwise, of the economic activities of the community...(Bulletin, 1916, 27).

Superintendent Wheatley's work (a committee member) in Middletown (CT) was then described and lauded. Other examples were also given to coincide with a number of the elements of welfare.

Part III described the work for grades 10-12. The general outline was one year of European history to the end of the seventeenth century; one or one-half year of European history, including English history, since the end of the seventeenth century; one or one-half year of European history, including English history, since the end of the seventeenth century; one or one-half year of American history and one or one-half year of the problems of American democracy. This is the cycle repeated from grade seven to nine. The decision as to which course is most appropriate for each student was addressed by the Committee. "[I]t would seem desirable for the pupil, whose time in the last three years is limited, to take those social studies which would most directly aid him to understand the relations of his own social life" (Bulletin, 1916, 35). The equal amount of time given to pre-seventeenth and to recent history was noted by the Committee whose members were convinced that "recent history is richer in suitable materials for secondary education than the more remote periods, and is worthy of more intensive study" (Bulletin, 1916, 36).

As to course organization, the Committee subscribed to a topical or problem method, as opposed to a method based on chronological sequence alone and felt those problems should be selected with the pupil's immediate interest and general social significance in mind (Bulletin, 1916, 37). Of particular concern would be the aforementioned elements of welfare.

In considering principles underlying history instruction, the Committee stated that "the historical training acquired by the pupils is not proportional to the number of courses offered. The Committee struggled with this and with different approaches to history, but found no substitute for the chronological organization of history adequately meeting the needs and conditions of secondary education (Bulletin, 1916, 48). But rather than a comprehensive overview, the Committee considered one year of school work on one historical epoch, permitting the teacher free choice within these limits. This sounds similar to the "special period" studied intensively in grade twelve recommended by the Committee of Ten in 1894.

To the Committee of 1916, the Problems of American Democracy course might also be seen as appropriate for intensive study. The Committee was responding to the demands of economists and sociologists, and the perceived needs of high school students in proposing this course, which in its content of issues would vary from year to year and class to class.

Illustrations for the course were given, drawn in part from Jones' work at Hampton Institute. The Committee noted that they could find "no better illustration of the organization of economic and sociological knowledge on a problem basis...than that offered in the work of this institution [Hampton]" (Bulletin, 1916, 55-56). Because of the innovative nature of this proposed course, the Committee urged experimentation in the content of this course using the principles applied to community civics (i.e., the elements of welfare).

Part IV of the Report dealt with teacher preparation and relied upon standards proposed previously by Dunn to test the value of civics instruction. These included the pupil's present interest as a citizen, motives for studying civics, stimulation of cooperation among pupils, cultivation of judgment and initiative in civic situations and subject matter organized on the basis of the pupil's past experiences, immediate interests, and needs of his present growth.

While offering few suggestions for improvement, the Committee did note that "the greatest obstacle to the vitalization of the social studies is the lack of preparation on the part of teachers" (Bulletin, 1916, 58). The next greatest was the lack of suitable textbooks.

The Committee was less concerned about textbooks because they were confident of the future fluidness of the social studies curriculum, precluding the use of the same text each year. History and social science instruction would "vary...from term to term from class to class and even from pupil to pupil. The future textbook will accordingly be less and less a compendium of information and more and more a manual of method and illustrated material..." (Bulletin, 1916, 62).

Textbooks might be abandoned, and that was seen as a wholesome development, within reason, as was the development of local materials. These can be boring and useless, however, and rarely "constitute suitable textbooks or adequate substitutes for them" (Bulletin, 1916, 63).

On this note the Committee Report ends.

Analyzing the 1916 Report and Its Use Today

Barr, Barth, and Shermis have noted the tremendous, unanticipated impact that the 1916 Report had on the public schools.

> The primary effect seems to have been to establish a certain organization of courses, paradoxically the very part of the report not recommended for universal use. The call for developing unique curriculum suited for local use seems to have been ignored, as was the integration of history and civics, and the use of topics or problems as a basis for course structure (Barr, Barth, and Shermis, 27).

Briggs found in 1920 that history, geography, and civics were the offerings basically in grades seven, eight, and nine. Five years later, Wilson found similar patterns, as did others through the 1930s and 1940s. The patterns observed, however, as Barr, Barth, and Shermis noted, were the courses **not** recommended for universal use. Thus began a mythology persistent today of the course recommendations as the key to the 1916 Report. A continued view of social studies as social science coursework persisted based, at least in part, on an erroneous (or non) reading of the 1916 Report. The writers of the Committee Report were far more flexible than the misinterpretations of the report would imply; but, as noted, the Committee members did have strong ideological biases, and that report, as well as others, should be read with an eye for scrutinizing closely the biases of the authors.

The 1916 Report began in a way different from the previous AHA reports, that is by failing to note any previous work done by others in the area. Each AHA Report acknowledged previous AHA work, as well as the NEA Committee of Ten and, sometimes, the American Sociological Society or American Political Science Association reports. But the members of the 1916 Report chose **not** to do this. Even if some members were unfamiliar with previous reports, the Committee collectively could not have been. After all, Robinson had been on the Committee of Ten in 1892, and he was actively involved with the AHA.

This lack of credit may seem trivial, but I see it as sending two or three messages. First, the Committee could have been saying that it felt the previous reports were worthless and would not give them credit. Second, the Committee might have been concerned that the NEA, not the AHA or other social science groups, should be the body to make statements of curriculum policy. Thus, it did not matter what was in previous AHA Reports, the Committee simply would not acknowledge it. It might also have been that Dunn and/or Jones, in writing the report, had failed to draw enough on the Committee members' expertise, and simply weren't familiar enough with what the previous AHA reports had to say.

Despite the flexibility, the Committee felt history could not simply stand on its own as the AHA committees had. History, too, had to answer the test of good citizenship. As Jones noted in 1913, "recent history is more important than ancient; our own than that of foreign lands; labors and plans of the multitudes more than the pleasures and dreams of the few" (U.S. Bureau of Education, 1913, 18). Economic concepts would provide the students with clearer understandings of the citizen's role in a socially responsive democracy:

> The student should, at the end of the course, be in a position to see just what social workers, single taxers, socialists or organized labor advocates and government regulation enthusiasts are trying to accomplish. The ideal of individual and social welfare will in the manner be impressed upon his mind and serve as an inspiration for his life work (Bulletin, 1913, 26).

The Committee of 1916 believed in what we refer to as social Darwinism. Natural selection played a strong part in societies' successes as well as the success of individuals or groups within a society. Change was slow, yet generally accretive. Success came by knowing your place in the social order and slowly working to improve it. Education was the key to municipal and, generally, social reform. One would profit by studying the functions of government where one's impact might be felt. Thus, city, not national, government study was most important.

The Committee members, as Lybarger observed, were strongly opposed to socialism. They saw nothing wrong with the system as designed; it was practice which was often corrupt, and education would highlight this. I am convinced that in today's curriculum, many of the Committee members would support free enterprise education and that sort of economic education. Lybarger has observed that many Committee members saw the need first for order in the school in order to insure the safety of the Republic (Lybarger, 253). He aiso noted that,

> Obedience, patience, punctuality and hope, etc., considered as the virtues of citizenship and embodied in school curricula, mean that educators view the good citizen as "obedient..." But citizenship in a democratic republic may require other virtues. For example, the good citizen in 1916-17 might have needed to evaluate the way in which the United States was becoming involved in World War I...
>
> Had members of the Committee on Social Studies understood citizenship in other ways, they might have modified or changed their list of civic virtues. The *Social Studies in Secondary Education* might have read: 'The good citizen is not only obedient, helpful and courteous, but also is intelligent, assertive and critical (Lybarger, 83).

Thus, early on social studies "were drained of critical content in order to pursue the piecemeal improvement of social, economic, and political conditions while at the same time obscuring the cause of poor conditions" (Lybarger, 299).

As Barr, Barth, and Shermis noted, the reverence to the mistaken notions of what the 1916 Report said endure. This, despite more extensive reports that followed. (It should be noted that of the spate of reports issued between 1895 and 1935, the two most flexible and shortest were the NEA Reports of 1894 and 1916, and these have become the most referred to for what they supposedly said.) The National Society for the Study of Education's Yearbook (Part II) of 1923 was devoted to the social studies and examined many experiments in curricular offerings. The American Political Science Association's report of 1916 referred to and supported much of the NEA Report of 1916. The tremendous AHA undertaking, the study of the Social Studies in the Schools, first proposed in 1925 and completed ten years later, seems to have been universally ignored by social scientists and educators. Yet the "romance" of the 1916 Report endures.

The parallels between 1916 and today are worth noting and discussing. Then, as now, we have increasing concern with immigration, only this time the immigrants come not from Europe, but Latin American and East Asia. English only regulations of the early 1900s have become the more sophisticated "English as official language laws" of the 1980s and 90s.

The new immigrants are putting an added strain on already pressed social services, including the schools. In addition, there are those who see American life as "we" know it threatened by minorities becoming the majority, as will be the case by the year 2000 in California. Schools are being looked to once again to "properly" Americanize these new youngsters.

The dropout rate among minorities is over 25%, maybe as much as 50%, depending on measures used. The overall dropout rate is of pressing concern, and the social studies curriculum needs to be restructured by local districts with this in mind. Many studies of dropouts have indicated that the curriculum is part of the reason students drop out, rather than part of the solution to preventing dropping out (Nelson, 1987).

A related concern to dropping out is drugs. Many students drop out who have become drug users. Drugs are clearly a factor in dropout, and the major factor in the dramatic increase in violent crime incidents nationwide.

The United States has become in the 1990s the leading debtor nation in the world. Can schools continue to ignore such things in their social studies curriculums?

The spate of new reports and studies in the past ten years—*What! Do Our 17-Year-Olds Know;* "James Madison High School;" The Bradley Commission's, "Building a History Curriculum;" Bloom's *Closing of the American Mind,* Hirsch's *Cultural Literacy,* and the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools—constitute a period in social studies education that is much like the early twentieth century when reports were issued with regularity.

It is difficult to assess and keep track of today's reports, and the Report of 1916 can be helpful in that process. The recommendations of 1916 that are most useful should not be borrowed, but viewed in context. Social studies curriculum can and should be flexible and teacher developed. A truly independent curriculum that is **not** like all others would seem to have much to be considered by teacher-curriculum developers.

Returning to some previous notions of history in the social studies curriculum which are "traditional" is foolish without keeping in mind that another century of history has transpired, while efforts to institutionalize the history up to 1916 go on. The Bradley Commission report laments the demise of the "common democratic curriculum" of 1892 (Bradley Commission, 1). Their recommendations reflect the strong history base of the members of the commission. Though many of their themes seem broader in scope, the strong ideological notion of history for the sake of history contrasts sharply with some other reports and reflects the earlier concerns of AHA reports.

Just as this essay sought to present a contextual approach to the 1916 Report, so should today's reports be scrutinized. Who are the folks writing these reports, and who is appointing them? What constituencies do they represent and what ideologies do they seek to put forth?

As Lybarger noted, there is no reason to believe that the report writers of 1916 were conspiratorial or meant to restrict choices available to children in American schools (Lybarger, 25). Similarly, there is no evidence that any of today's report writers have such notions in mind. It behooves educators to know, however, much more about the experts who put forth recommendations for the social studies curriculum and the schools.

All of the reports issued so far have strong ideological underpinnings. That is a strength of the character of the reports. Those ideologies are often ignored in accepting reports at face value. In order to fully understand and appreciate the "new" reports, members of the field of social studies must be tacile with their own foundations and ideological biases. It is hoped that this essay fosters that process.

Endnotes

1. For more on the Committee of Ten's Report, see Nelson M.R., "First Efforts Toward a National Curriculum: The Committee of Ten's Report on History, Civil Government and Political Economy." *Theory and Research in Social Education*, Vol. XX, No. 3, Summer 1992, pp. 242-262.

2. Correia saw Kingsley as the key to Committee appointments. See Correia, S. "A small circle of friends—Clarence Kingsley and the Committee on Secondary Education." Paper presented to the Society for The Study of Curriculum History Annual Meeting, San Francisco, April, 1992.

3. An excellent discussion of the evolutionists is found in Marvin Harris's *The Rise of Anthropological Theory*, New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1968. Correia's following commentary looks at Jones in greater depth.

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Thomas Jesse Jones—Doing God's Work and the 1916 Report

by Stephen T. Correia

As Nelson noted in the previous commentary, no work in social studies has been consistently referred to over the past 75 years as much as *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, BULLETIN, 1916, No. 28.

1916 is a benchmark year in the study of the origins of the social studies. In this year the Committee on Social Studies, which was one of 16 committees which comprised the U.S. Bureau of Education's Committee on the Reorganization Of Secondary Education (hereafter referred to as the CRSE) issued the report, *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*. Education historian Edward Krug has given credit to the social studies committee report as being"...one of the most successful efforts of the entire CRSE."[1] In the ten years following the release of the committee's report, over 27,000 copies were distributed by the U.S. Bureau of Education.[2] One contemporary historian has characterized that the ideas on which the 1916 social studies report were constructed "...did indeed alter the curricular landscape."[3] This seminal document also has had a lasting influence on the social studies field, as the report's effects on secondary education social studies curriculums continued at least into the 1970s.[4]

Recent works in social studies scholarship have focused on the historical foundations of the field. The works include the 1981 dissertation by Michael Lybarger "Origins of the Social Studies Curriculum: 1865-1916", an entire issue of *Theory and Research in Social Education* in the Fall of 1980, as well as the recently published book by David Saxe, *Social Studies in Schools, A History of the Early Years*. These historical works have provided for a greater understanding of the origins of the social studies by both exploring and documenting significant ideologies and works in the early years of the field.

Following the groundwork laid by these historians of the social studies, this work will focus on the Chairperson of the Committee on Social Studies, Thomas Jesse Jones. Little scholarly work has been undertaken on Jones, and this work seeks to address that shortfall.[5]

To those interested in the foundations of social studies, Jones is remembered for his work as chairperson of the Social Studies committee. In this role Jones has been called "...one of the founding fathers of social studies."[6] He was among the first educators to use the term "social studies" in reference to an academic subject which involved the collective study of sociology, civics, economics, and political science.

The influence of Jones's educational thought and career was not, however, universally commended. The venerable social critic and scholar, W.E.B. DuBois labeled Jones as the "...evil genius of the black race." This description was in reference to the fact that Jones, a white man, was becoming internationally known for his place of leadership in black education. A contemporary historian, Donald Stone, has described Jones as being both an "educational colonialist" and a "cultural imperialist." Stone was referring to Jones's recommendations developed while working with the Phelps Stokes Fund, that industrial education, rather than a classical academic one, be the dominant type of education for blacks in the American South.

Jones looked to education as the primary vehicle to reform society. Through the proper education of youth, that is, the schools teaching the students proper values and beliefs, Jones believed society could be directed and placed upon a proper direction. This education, and the belief that education offered the best and most realistic hope for the future improvement of society, places Jones within the rubric of progressive educators that shared the belief in the potential of education to positively influence society.

Jones has been described as being an influential figure in the history of social studies. He also has been characterized as a dangerous and sinister force in the development of education models for African-American and Native American students. These descriptions of Jones's educational thought create a composite of an educational leader with a varied historical legacy. This work will: (1) provide relevant historical background relative to Jones's professional development; (2) examine Jones's conception of social studies and the influence he exerted over the formulation of the 1916 Social Studies report; and (3) examine why Jones's educational legacy remains varied and discuss what these various legacies reveal about an historical figure that has been virtually ignored by educational historians.

Early Experiences

Jones was born in Llanfachraeth, on the Isle of Anglesey, in the northwest corner of Wales in 1873. He was six years old when his father Benjamin died in the spring of 1880. According to Jones's family histories, due to the expiration of the lease on the family operated inn, the widowed Sarah Williams Jones was forced to move. Finally in 1884, the young widow decided to follow relatives (the Davis family) to the United States of America. The young Jones family arrived in southern Ohio in the late summer or autumn of 1884. The young Thomas Jesse was to become profoundly influenced by the Davis family, close relatives who were established in various retail and wholesale businesses in the Pomeroy and Middleport areas of Southern Ohio.

In the preface to Jones' 1929 book *Essentials of Civilization*, he recounts the story of his family's initial exposure to America, as they sailed into New York harbor,"...the first thrill of America...the blue waters...the green shores...the stately buildings... our eager expectations had been fulfilled." Jones writes that he had been dreaming of "America... the Land of Hope...from earliest boyhood." This idealistic view of America was quickly shattered as the realities of "...dirty workman, wild confusion...noises and smells and ugly sights were everywhere." To the young boy, the dreams of the promised land had been abruptly replaced by the harsh reality of America.

Speaking only Welsh, the young immigrant found adjusting to life in America to be initially difficult. Jones spent most of his time working in his maternal uncle's meat shop sweeping and performing odd jobs. He was not paid money for his work, but was rewarded in lemonade and raspberries. It was expected that all the family would work in the store or any of the Davis' businesses, so both Thomas and his older brother, Robert John, had little available free time as children. According to Jones's daughter and substantiated via a review of his personal and professional records, this appears to be the only instance when Jones would have had the opportunity to have established a working relationship with lower economic class workers. Perhaps it was while working in any of these various businesses that young Tho[illegible] developed an "...intimate association with workingmen sympathy with labor unions and resentment against capitalists...."

In 1891, Jones, on the basis of a scholarship obtained with the help of a local Presbyterian minister, enrolled in Washington and Lee College in Lexington, Virginia. Although his matriculation records indicate a generally satisfactory performance, he remained at Washington and Lee just one year.

Upon return to Southern Ohio, and with a year of college under his belt, Jones turned to the field of education. Beginning in the fall of 1892, he served as a classroom teacher, and eventually, a Principal Teacher, in the Pomeroy-Middleport school district. Jones also became very active in the local Presbyterian Church, serving in a leadership role with the Meigs County Sunday School Association. It was also at this time that he met his future wife, although it would be ten years before they married.

The linkage of religion to formal education was a notion quite familiar to Jones. He was able to attend Washington and Lee on a religious scholarship. He also intertwined his career in the public schools with his spiritual development in the Pomeroy Presbyterian Church. The bond of formal religious training to education would continue throughout Jones's lifetime.

The future was not to be found in the grade schools of Southern Ohio, and instead in the fall of 1894, Jones enrolled at Marietta College in Marietta, Ohio, to finish his studies. While his interest in education and social problems would always continue, his undergraduate education would point him in the direction of the emerging fields of social science.

Marietta College

The Marietta years would be critical to Jones's intellectual and professional evolution because he would emerge in three years not only with a Bachelor of Arts degree, but also with a chosen career path. While at Marietta, Jones was exposed to some of the most progressive, innovative, and influential minds of the day in both the Christian Religion—primarily in the form of the Social Gospel—and in the emerging field of social sciences. It would be this introduction to the academic exploration and understanding of social problems that would guide Jones's career development.

School receipts indicate that Thomas received a scholarship to Marietta College which covered the cost of tuition and rent. The scholarship fell under the heading of "Ministerial Rebate" and seems to have been an arrangement similar to the one he had at Washington and Lee. School records also indicate that the agreement was that Jones would serve in the ministry upon graduation and thereby have his college expenses defrayed.

While at Marietta College, Jones first became exposed to the formal study of the social sciences at the tutelage of three prominent social scientists. These three were J. Allen Smith, The Rev. Dr. J. H. W. Stuckenberg, and The Rev. Washington Gladden. Smith had recently completed his Ph.D. in economics at The University of Michigan and came to Marietta for his initial college teaching position. Stuckenberg had lectured at Marietta on an interim basis for parts of semesters from 1896 to 1898. Gladden, a trustee of Marietta College from 1883 to 1898, taught a course in Municipal Problems and lectured to student audiences on occasion.

It was probably through either Stuckenberg or Gladden that Jones first came to see the relationship between religion, social problems, and many of the social inequities that he had seen as a boy as he entered the United States. Stuckenberg was himself an ordained minister with a Ph.D. in religion and had received academic training at the University of Halle in Germany. The Professor's area of particular interest was that of social thought and movement.

Dr. Stuckenberg exposed the young Jones to the more formal study of society. In a 1948 work *An Introduction to the History of the Origins of Sociology*, author Harry Barnes describes Stuckenberg's brand of Sociology as being "...characterized by a considerable amount of erudition and mental vigor....and freedom from technicalities." Having interest in, yet no experience in the academic study of social problems, Stuckenberg surely served the young undergraduate as an accessible and understandable introduction to the formal study of social issues.

In a most interesting explanation of the process and means by which societal goals would be achieved, Barnes states that Stuckenberg believed education to be the vehicle for the achievement of societal goals. Specifically, and in an amazingly revealing explanation, Barnes states that Stuckenberg emphasized that education should include "...sociology, political science, and international law—**what we now call the "Social Studies"** (bold face emphasis attributed to this commentary's author). It would seem that Jones was indeed exposed to the use of education, especially the social sciences, as a means by which to address social problems, very early in his educational career. Stuckenberg concentrated on explaining the role and relationship of the individual to society. While each was indeed a separate entity, the individual, Stuckenberg postulated, had a responsibility to the entire society, and not only to himself.

Historian Richard Hofstadter, in *Social Darwinism in American Thought*, has described The Rev. Washington Gladden, in reference to the leaders of the social gospel movement, as "[t]he most famous and the most active." Gladden was a moderate reformer, with his social gospel reform philosophy deriving from a Christian ethic, whereby the ills of society were to be addressed by working within the present political, social, and economic system. He espoused a recognition of social problems and a responsibility of society to solve them, yet he did not advocate either drastic socialistic methods or radical philosophy. This moderate social reform, couched in Christian religious overtones, would later be echoed in much of Jones' work.

As a young undergraduate, ostensibly immersed in his initial exposure to the field, this would seem to have been a most favorable situation in which to have been exposed to the infant field of social problems and issues. Both Stuckenberg and Gladden brought with them formal religious training to the academic study of social problems. As Jones, too, would chose to obtain formal religious training in a university setting, the association of religion to the function of society was evidently exposed to the young Jones early in his education career.

J. Allen Smith was the most secular social scientist Jones had as a professor at Marietta College. Smith had recently completed his Ph.D. in economics from the University of Michigan and came to Marietta in the fall of 1895 for his first teaching position. He taught courses in both economics and sociology.

Smith would eventually leave Marietta, the reasons offered ranging from Smith's political viewpoints to the consistent budget deficits the college was carrying. Whatever the reason for his leaving, in November of 1902, Jones wrote a letter to his former professor, who was then at the University of Washington. Jones wrote that he wished to "...express to you my gratitude for your interest in me while at Marietta and for the awakening which you brought to me in economic and sociological knowledge."

It was Smith who introduced Jones to the modern scientific investigation of society, but Stuckenberg and Gladden, as advocates of the Social Gospel, who also included Christianity in their social science conceptions of the world. As Jones would soon make the choice of attending Union Theological Seminary, the association of religion to social reform presented itself to the young Jones will before graduate school.

New York City

Following graduation from Marietta, Jones decided to attend graduate school to become an ordained minister. Thomas Jesse chose to head to New York City for his formal academic training for his life's work. Initially enrolling in the Union Theological Seminary, Jones was also able to take classes concurrently at Columbia University.

The Bachelor of Divinity degree was earned by Thomas Jesse from the Union Theological Seminary in 1900, while he had previously earned his Masters of Arts in Sociology from Columbia in 1899. This combination of sociology and religion, would play a prominent role in the evolution of Jones educational philosophy. It would be from both sociological theory and religious doctrine that Jones would derive answers for the many social problems that he would confront throughout his career.

Social Education in the Elementary Schools was the title of Jones' 55 page masters thesis, written in 1899 at the completion of his Masters of Arts degree in Sociology. This is the first in-depth work, written by Jones, which provides insight into his evolving educational and social philosophy. In it the author presents a case for the elementary schools to place more emphasis on the social nature of the child. Jones argues that the entire school should be oriented to the social aspects of daily life. Jones writes that the true aim of a public school education was that it "...must be based on a wide observation of man, a study of him...into a true appreciation of nature, society and God." Clearly, as envisioned by Jones, the school was not to function as a center in which students were to learn in isolation from the rest of society. Jones was proposing a merging of the study of current social conditions to take place within a framework of Christian ideals.

Jones also advocated that citizenship education must be included in any responsible elementary curriculum. He believed that all the citizens of a democracy needed to be prepared for the duties of citizenship. Among the duties of good citizens would be the acceptance of the current political leadership, as well as the citizen understanding that the needs of society were to take precedence over individual wants and need. The good citizen was to be educated so as to place the greater needs of society ahead of personal desires. Jones also observed that manual training was beginning to be offered in the schools, and he believed this type of training would be useful to the child because it could give increased meaning and understanding to other school subjects.

In an early call for the social studies, which Jones conceived of as being outcome oriented, and not discipline centered, he proposed an "...integration of studies." It would be through this integration of studies, according to Jones, that students will come to better understand, and even eventually propose, the proper solutions to current social problems. By not limiting the student to any one particular subject area, the student would be able to draw from a variety of subject areas to first, come to understand the problem and then second, propose appropriate solutions.

In concluding his thesis, Jones proposed that a social education program similar to the one presented in the thesis would be proper and beneficial to the social and educational assimilation of immigrants. He states that the social education the children would receive in school would help not only the students, but also the parents of the recently-arrived immigrants. The result would be that the child, once educated to be a responsible American citizen, respectful of laws and always striving to contribute to the betterment of society through their own actions, would serve as a readily available role model for his/her parents to emulate.

After finishing his Divinity degree, Jones received the Fellowship in Sociology at Columbia University, and began his Ph.D. work in Sociology under Professor Franklin Henry Giddings. It was also at this time that Jones received his first in-depth academic exposure to current social problems.

The influence of Giddings upon the young student was pronounced, and Jones continued a life-long friendship with his former professor. In one instance, almost 30 years after he had taken his last class from the professor, Jones referred to Giddings as "...the outstanding sociologist of America...."

To describe Giddings' sociological beliefs, in brief, is a most ambitious enterprise. However, it is possible to delineate specific foundational beliefs, and the ways in which these sociological beliefs of Giddings manifested themselves in the writings of his young charge. In short, Giddings believed in the hierarchy of the races, a Spencerian point of view regarding biological determinism involving the rank, or hierarchy of the races. The highest, most advanced race was the Anglo-Saxon. Furthermore, all races developed along a similar pattern, and to disrupt this evolutional pattern of race development, even benevolently, would deny a race of the experiences necessary to ensure their advancement into the next higher order.

According to Giddings, also a disciple of classical economics, it was expected that suffering and progress would occur simultaneously; one was not possible without the other. The sociologist, philanthropist, and educator could lesson the suffering, according to Giddings, yet the laissez-faire economic system must be allowed to develop and function. This hands-off system would, eventually, work to the benefit of all races. Furthermore, to better understand the stages each race was presently in, and solve the problems facing any contemporary society, the Sociologist was particularly well suited to analyze and collect the pertinent facts and propose proper solutions.

While Jones would use Giddings intricate labeling of races and stages of social development, Jones's work would primarily involve devising schemes to raise races from a lower level to the next higher one. Giddings provided the theoretical framework, and Jones took it upon himself to implement the proper program to bring about the necessary changes. Jones seems never to have questioned the basic premise of his work, namely that the "Anglo-Saxon ideal" was the natural pinnacle for all races.

The University Settlement House, a Columbia University sponsored social gathering center for recently arrived immigrants in Manhattan's lower East side, was the sight of Jones's first administrative post in New York. Although available records are not clear, it is probable that Jones was appointed "Acting Headworker" for a four month period in 1902. He did work at the house for most of the two years he was finishing his doctoral studies. He remained in that post until he took a position at the Hampton Institute in late 1902.

Jones, as did others at the University Settlement House, believed the function of the house was to teach recently arrived Eastern and Southern European immigrants how to be responsible citizens. In this setting, Jones was able to develop programs, be they academic or social, in which the expected outcome for each was to provide a lesson whereby the immigrant would learn some valuable lesson regarding becoming a more responsible American citizen.

Jones did write a series of articles in the settlement house publication, entitled UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT BULLETIN. The articles show that he believed the work of the settlement house and the school to be identical. Both were to aid the immigrant, or evolutionary less developed races, to advance along the continuum of development, with the goal being the eventual attainment of the Anglo-Saxon ideal. The agency at hand, whether the formal education of the public school, or the more adult-oriented settlement house, would help the student or immigrant to understand how the system worked and where to go for help or assistance to alleviate temporary suffering. Also included in this education was a strong dose of citizenship training. Jones believed that the settlement house was to aid in "...the transformation of the individual into the Anglo-Saxon ideal."

As the above selections indicate, the evolution of the races was the goal of all Sociological effort as it was perceived by Jones from the teaching of Giddings to the manifestation of those beliefs in the University Settlement House. Need was determined as to what was needed to help the race achieve the next level of development, not immediate suffering or temporary conditions of want. Existing patterns of social and political development were not to be disturbed. The immigrant was to learn to adapt and work within this system, not change or alter it. Clearly, this was an attempt to maintain social control, while, as the theory goes, plan for eventual orderly and proper social improvement.

In 1904, Jones' dissertation was finished and he received the Ph.D. in Sociology. Entitled *The Sociology of a New York City Block*, this was a detailed study of tenement dwellers on one urban block in New York City. In this dissertation many of the same themes explored in earlier Jones efforts are again presented. Both the school and teachers are described by Jones as not truly meeting the needs of the students. Jones believed that the schools were actually harming their students by treating each as separate and unique individuals. The school was to primarily help the child develop into the Anglo-Saxon ideal, and according to Jones, different races and nationalities need unique educational training to help them achieve the Anglo-Saxon ideal. The teachers of these urban children were not trained to educate and develop in the children the proper Anglo-Saxon ideal. The teachers were instead perpetuating the young charges inherent character deficiencies.[illegible]

According to Jones, most teachers had no idea that they were educating the students in an improper manner. It was up to the teacher, according to Jones, to analyze the needs of the students and then develop and implement an educational program that would help the youth to abandon their personality defects. These defects in the schools' program of addressing the needs of students were described by Jones in the following examples "...the nervous, flitting little Italian receives the same treatment as the steady, persevering, plodding little Jew."[illegible] The student must be trained, Jones explained, to abandon their individual "...national characteristics..."and move on the higher, more developed "...Anglo-Saxon ideal."[illegible]

Keeping in mind that Jones interpreted needs as being those experiences which would allow the lower races to evolve into the Anglo-Saxon ideal, it is not surprising that, according to Jones, the schools were not meeting these needs. As the above examples demonstrate, the school, according to Jones, was not a place to learn information in isolation from the rest of society. In fact, the school was to aid in the improvement of society, always functioning within the constraints of the Sociological theory in which the ultimate goal of the schools, and the races of students enrolled in them, was to reach the Anglo-Saxon ideal.

Jones's sociological theories, as evidenced in the above examples, were derivative of increasingly discredited scientific and philosophical thought.[illegible] As was also the case with Professor Stuckenberg at Marietta College, Professor Giddings was not a University educated sociologist. Giddings, as Stuckenberg, was a product of the Gilded Age and his sociological theories reflected the era in which they were formulated. Giddings received engineering training in college, yet entered journalism after finishing his education. He did follow Woodrow Wilson as Professor of Politics at Bryn Mawr College in 1888, and eventually came to Columbia University in 1894 as that school's first chair in the newly created Sociology department.[44]

Giddings' sociological theory was heavily influenced by the sociological doctrines of Herbert Spencer, as were many of the original social scientists.[illegible] This sociological outlook prepared Jones to look for professional work where his particular social science beliefs could find practical application. This merging of philosophy and mission would take place in Hampton, Virginia.

Armed with his brand of Sociology, Jones found fertile ground for his ideas at The Hampton Institute. The school had been founded by General Samuel C. Armstrong of the Freedman's Bureau in 1868. Armstrong advocated that an industrial education, coupled with a strong grounding in the Christian faith, was what was truly needed to raise the freedpeople to their proper place in society. Armstrong did recognize that tremendous social, economic, and political barriers existed in the struggle, and that it would take many years, even generations, until the black race would be able to function as the equal of the white race. It was in this setting, one in which whites were directing the educational, social, political, and economic future of selected southern blacks, that Jones would refine and begin to implement his theories.

The Rev. Hollis B. Frissell was the Principal of Hampton and, as was Jones, a graduate of the Union Theological Seminary in New York City. Hampton was a nationally recognized center of minority education, and at the time of Jones' arrival, Frissell was in the middle of orienting a significant change in the school's curriculum. This change was to be from an agricultural education to an education with an industrial orientation. Frissell believed that to direct the curriculum to a more industrial orientation would assure future Hampton graduates of a place in the changing economic reality of the rapidly growing nation. According to educational historian James D. Anderson, the role of the education at both Hampton and Booker T. Washington's Tuskeegee Institute was to "...train a corps of teachers...." As the overwhelming majority of Hampton graduates were to serve as teachers (the school took most seriously the "Normal" training of teachers), Frissell "...believed that the Hampton student who taught industrial education in the public schools was better prepared to do this than [graduates] any other..." schools.

Jones was to play a pivotal role in the upgrading of the curriculum of the school. In 1906 Jones completed the *Social Studies in the Hampton Curriculum*. This curriculum was intended to reflect and contribute to the overall mission of the school, especially the school's new emphasis on industrial education. Jones's social studies curriculum was intended to help Hampton's future teachers to teach their students to be better, meaning more accepting and appreciative, industrial workers. The goal of the social studies was, according to Jones, to train the students to more accurately understand the world they were about to enter. Further, Jones conceived of the social studies as an aid in the social evolution of Hampton students. He wrote, "[E]ach social study contributes to this picture of the evolution of the races." It was his contention that this social studies curriculum would, rather than providing specific employment and manual labor skills, help to prepare the Hampton student to function as a proper citizen and to act socially responsible.

The social studies curriculum was divided into three subject areas, each following evolutionary themes. The course was divided into three areas of study:

1 CIVICS AND SOCIAL WELFARE
2 ECONOMICS AND MATERIAL WELFARE
3 UNITED STATES CENSUS AND ACTUAL CONDITIONS

In brief, the students, through the use of carefully selected textbooks, United States Government Census Material, and their own experiences, examined the outside world. The social studies classes, as developed by Jones and strongly supported by the school, helped to provide the students with a model of proper behavior which the student was expected to both follow and advocate throughout his life. Because of the extensive use of Federal Government documents, for example census returns, it would also have been possible for future Hampton graduates, once teaching in the field, to obtain these materials for a nominal cost. Jones was building a curriculum that future teachers could take with them and teach to future generations of students who, in Jones's opinion, had not yet achieved the Anglo-Saxon ideal.

The Social Studies Curriculum as developed by Jones at Hampton was indeed revolutionary. The course, while comprised of individual social sciences, was a situation where the whole was greater than the sum of its parts. The course addressed the needs of the students, with the caveat that these needs were determined by Jones as being primarily deficiencies in character which were prohibiting the black students from achieving the Anglo-Saxon ideal. The course focused in large part upon current political and social problems the students, upon returning to their homes, were likely to face.

"Hampton was well ahead of its time in establishing a curriculum in social studies rather than the traditional social sciences and histories."[51] However, it is important to note that this Hampton-style social studies curriculum did not provide for the students to be trained to be intelligent and participating members of society. The ends of this course was to help to educate a group of future teachers who would, in turn, teach to their students a passive, accepting type of citizen involvement in society. Even though the problems under investigation and the perceived needs were all determined by the dominant white leadership at the school, this was a unique use of the social studies. The social control inherent in this curriculum is evident in the fact that nowhere in the document is the student allowed the opportunity to actively question the social environment or participate directly in the political process.

As Saxe writes in a history of the early years of social studies, the curriculum developed by Jones"...was decidedly directed at social control."[52] So while the combination of the social sciences was unique, the result was a curriculum intended to provide the intellectual foundation for minorities to first understand, then accept, their second-class citizenship. Saxe does credit this Hampton style social studies as being "...linked directly to the creation of the program of the 1913-1916 committee."[53]

This model of behavior, controlled by whites and advocating the acceptance of current social, economic, and political status quo, had as its center the students' proper understanding of their responsibilities, both as individual citizens and as members of society. Jones believed this program would ensure that Hampton's students would not view racial difficulties as oppression, rather as a natural event on the races' natural upward evolution. A contemporary historian has, however, charged that the Hampton "...social studies served to conceal the arbitrary, unjust, and oppressive nature of black subordination in the south."[34]

To understand the social studies that Jones fashioned at Hampton in isolation of the political and social reality of black southern life at the start of the 20th century is to not accurately understand the constraints under which both the school and Jones operated. This was a time of implementation of Jim Crow laws in which blacks were being legally denied the right to vote and were victims of governmentally sanctioned exclusion from mainstream life.[35]

From a 1990s perspective one may question whether the Hampton Institute sanctioned this turn of events in the south, or that the school chose to simply resign itself to the political reality of the south and educated its students for the life it was likely they were to lead. That the social studies that Jones developed contributed, and even strengthened existing Jim Crow laws in the south, is certainly debatable. However, as has been shown with the previous discussion of Jones's sociological beliefs, he did not believe most blacks, or other minorities, were capable of truly responsible social, political, or economic participation.

Jones was indeed aware of political improprieties in the South. In one of his early articles entitled "The Power of the Southern Election Registrar," he describes his own effort in registering to vote, and the manner in which he was denied the right to vote. Jones writes that his "case is still noteworthy in showing the extremely arbitrary power given to irresponsible and educated workers." He continues, "If this justice can be done to a white man.... one can imagine with what ease colored men, however worthy, are disenfranchised."[36] This situation is especially revealing about Jones's in that in those limited cases when a "worthy" person wanted to register, the corrupt political system precluded this from happening.

So while political disenfranchisement was a reality in the South, it did little to alter Jones's theories of progress for the involved minorities. Jones believed that all non-Anglo-Saxon races were on a long, slow march of progress to the Anglo-Saxon ideal. The immediate situation of political reality in the South, Jones believed, was but an isolated incident and should not deflect minority education to focus on short-term temporary needs when long-term needs, and the future of the entire race, was in the balance.

While Jones found political corruption to be unacceptable, and clearly in need of remedy, he maintained that most non-whites should be denied political participation on the basis of their lack of social evolution to the Anglo-Saxon ideal, and not at the hand, for example, of some corrupt, voter registrar. The distinction is critical to understanding Jones's sociological theory. He held that the sociologist, directing political activity and educational programs, was in the best position to ascertain the level of development non-whites had achieved, and then to design a course of action to achieve the intended outcome labeled by Giddings as the "Anglo-Saxon ideal." Once that level was achieved, even though neither Giddings nor Jones offered a timetable, political participation was expected, and the political system should allow, not deny, it.

While at the Hampton Institute, Jones's educational philosophy took specific shape and content. To Jones, whether working with immigrants in New York City, or African-American and Native American students in Virginia, the basic needs of both groups were the same. The specific non-Anglo-Saxon group was of little importance. Jones's sociological theory fitted him with the belief that ALL races were inferior to the Anglo-Saxon race. Therefore it was logical that any education program with which Jones was associated would reflect both his sociological training and religious beliefs.

Federal Government Work

Upon his departure from Hampton in 1909, Jones's educational and professional credentials placed him among the national leaders in minority education. The decade from 1909 to 1919 saw the young Rev. Jones rise meteorically from that of a teacher, researcher, and chaplin at Hampton, to the internationally influential Phelps Stokes Fund as its Educational Director. The interim years saw Jones assume positions of increasing power, influence, and national recognition. Upon leaving Hampton in 1909, he took a position with the U.S. Census Bureau in charge of the Negro Census for 1910. Following that he was employed part-time at Howard University as Acting Professor of Sociology, in Washington D.C., from 1910 to 1913.[57]

Jones's near 40 year association with the Phelps Stokes Fund began in late 1912.[58] Legally Jones was an employee of the United States Department of Education, however, his salary was actually paid for by the Fund. His charge was to undertake a study of black education in the South. This seminal study, published in 1917 by the Bureau of Education was entitled, *Negro Education: A Study of the Private and Higher Education Schools for Colored People in the United States*. One contemporary historian has labeled this report as being "...the most comprehensive survey of segregated schools for its time."[59]

In the spring of 1912, Clarence Kingsley, the future Chairperson of the CRSE, came to Washington D.C. as a non-salaried specialist in the U.S. Bureau of Education. It is possible that Jones, also serving as a "specialist" for the bureau, renewed his acquaintance with Kingsley at this time. Both had graduated from Columbia in 1904, both were influenced by Professor Henry Giddings, and both had done graduate work in the area of social service and social work with their studies taking place within the environs of the slums and ghettos of New York City.[60] With their similar backgrounds, geographic proximity and mutual history, it is not surprising that Kingsley appointed Jones as the Chairperson of the Social Science Committee in 1912, one of 10 such subject committees involved in the reorganization of secondary education.

Jones was particularly well-suited to lead this committee. He had previous experience revising curriculum, he was well-connected professionally, and he was an ardent believer that compromise was the most efficient method to achieve consensus when dealing with a variety of potentially divisive points of view. Not all members of this committee conceived of social studies, citizenship or student's needs, in the same manner. Jones, true to his nature, managed to direct the committee to formulate a document upon which members from a variety of traditions could agree.

A review of the professional backgrounds of the 26 members of The Reviewing Committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, all of who were chosen by the Chairman, Clarence Kingsley, reveal the extent to which the membership owed their appointments to Kingsley. Of the 26 members, at least 19 had a prior working relationship with him. While the venue of this working relationship varied, it was limited to one of four specific settings. It is also possible that, as in the case of Jones, this relationship involved more than one setting. The four settings from which the overwhelming numbers of this commission came into contact with Kingsley were, first Columbia University, second the U.S. Bureau of Education, third the Massachusetts school system, and finally, the City of New York. Given this context, it is clear that Jones' appointment followed a pattern established by Kingsley in the selection of individuals to his commission.[illegible]

It was in 1913, prior to the release of the Preliminary Statement, that the name of the committee changed from the Committee on Social Science to the Committee on Social Studies.[illegible] Circumstantial evidence paints Jones as the change agent relative to the committee's name change from 'Social Science' to 'Social Studies.' The revolutionary nature of this name change is critical to understanding the upcoming recommendations to be made by the committee. Clearly, to be recommended to the nation in the form of upcoming committee bulletins was a new approach to the education of students. While indeed Jones was familiar with the term social studies, the unique use of the combination of subject matter for a school level "social study" was significant. It was not to be any individual social science that was to dominate the curriculum, it was instead to be the unique combination of subject matter as a whole which would combine to provide for the true social and political education of the student, namely citizenship education.

In the Preliminary Statement released in 1913 Jones, writes that "[g]ood citizenship should be the aim of social studies in the high school....Facts, conditions, theories and activities that do not contribute rather directly to the appreciation of methods of human betterment have no claim...."[illegible] Similar to that as developed by Jones at Hampton, he was advocating a citizenship curriculum that was to prepare students for the society of which they were to be a part. The school would function in a direct manner in the training of citizens. As would be expected, individual concerns were not at the center of these proposals. Rather, it was to be the place of the individual within the greater context of society that would occupy the recommendations of the committee. Jones wrote... "While the administration and instruction throughout the school should contribute to the social welfare of the community, it is maintained that social studies have direct responsibility in this field."[illegible] This passage states that Jones held that schools needed to orient themselves to a social purpose, and was offering social studies as the central curriculum area to produce proper citizens.

The committee chose not to make specific curriculum recommendations, instead they urged local educators to make the decisions as to what kind of topics and subject-matter were appropriate for their unique local conditions. The committee report stated that the intention of the document was to "...establish certain principles... and to stimulate initiative on the part of teachers...."[illegible] Also, by not forwarding specific criteria, the principles contained in the report could be applied to a variety of schools settings, from "...such as the traditional, commercial, scientific, technical or agricultural high school."[illegible]

It was in large part the unwillingness or inability of the Committee to present definitions of "present needs and interests" that have contributed to the continuing confusion of what social studies is.[illegible] As these "needs and interests" were to play a large part in the determination of the design of the curriculum, the absence of definitions, while ostensibly providing a great deal of latitude to local educators to address these as they determined, also resulted in a wide variety of offered definitions, and obscured the potential of the field at its inception.

Jones brought to the Committee his experience of working with minorities and other groups which were out of the mainstream of American life. The place of incoming immigrants and other minorities within the America of 1916 was a major concern for educators at this time. It is indeed likely that the committee urged experimentation, especially in the form of the Problems of Democracy course presented in the Twelfth Grade, to provide the context in which these previously mentioned "needs and interests" could be intimately addressed. Ten years earlier at Hampton, Jones had addressed the needs of his students, this design presented in the 1916 report would also allow the same freedom and flexibility on the part of like-minded local educators; to respond to their local conditions as they saw fit.

Jones continued to interpret these "needs and interests" in terms of his previously presented Sociological theory. According to Jones, needs were those things, if properly addressed, which would ensure the raising of the race from one level to the next higher level of development. This was most certainly a collective or society influenced definition of needs, and the temporary needs of the individual would find no place for consideration within this context. Jones looked to education to serve his conception of student's need. This resulted in an educational philosophy that was decidedly directed toward social control. This was a direct result of Jones's sociological training, and remained with him throughout his career.

Given this context, it is understandable that some of the other committee members, one example being Arthur W. Dunn, who derived their educational and sociological theories from a different perspective, were unable to reach agreement, or a compromise, on how to exactly define these terms. Dunn, who did graduate work in sociology at the University of Chicago, which was free from the evolutionary constraints and positivism espoused by Professor Giddings at Columbia, conceived of the study of social problems from a vastly different perspective than did Jones.[68]

Because of this inability to reach consensus on definitions of 'needs and interests', the members chose, or resigned themselves, to a report that offered no such definitions. The report, instead, allowed local school educators to develop specific curricula along the guidelines recommended by the Committee, and by so doing, respond efficiently to their unique local conditions.

Jones After the Report

Jones was very busy during the time of the report's compilation with his other duties with The Phelps Stokes Fund. He officially submitted the report to the Fund's Trustee's on April 6, 1917.[69] In November of that year, he officially received the title "Educational Director of the Phelps Stokes Fund."[70] In this capacity, he left for Europe on October 19, 1918, to engage in a Fund-approved, YMCA-sponsored effort to lift the morale of "Colored Troops" serving in France.[71] Outside career opportunities were drawing Jones away from social studies, and he would exert very little, if any, influence on the development of the field beyond his role in the formulation of the 1916 report.

Upon return from France, Jones did not, however, disappear from the emerging field of social studies. On April 19, 1919, the Committee on Teaching Citizenship was founded in New York City. The group states that their aim was "to encourage the education of boys and girls in the United States concerning the origin and development of liberty, co-operation and democracy; the economic, political, and social problems confronting democracy to-day; the responsibility of citizens in a democracy, and the ends and values of living."[72]

The announcement of this group's formation also mentioned that they were "in touch" with many existing associations, such as the NEA and the American Sociological Association, and committees, such as CRSE, which shared an interest in education. The group admitted to being a "propaganda committee," and wished to give "widespread publicity" to the work of the Committee on Social Studies.[73] Given the general nature of the mission of the committee, and the liberal use of terms such as citizenship and democracy, as well as a stated goal to support the findings of the Committee on Social Studies, Jones's involvement with the group was predictable.

Jones became the Chairman of the Editorial Committee for the recently renamed National Committee for Teaching Citizenship in March 1920.[74] In the same month, he "addressed a meeting of the Schoolmasters' Club of Massachusetts in Boston." Jones told the listeners that he believed the social studies were making progress in the secondary schools, however, "the emphasis continues to be largely on the political and aspects of present-day problems rather than the sociological."[75]

Jones was already beginning to question the application of his conception of the social studies. By ignoring the "sociological," Jones reasoned, schools were putting "too much emphasis on abnormalities and their correction" and not enough on presenting to the students a study of "normal"conditions. By focusing on such abnormal conditions as "divorce," students were being denied the opportunity to study and understand the "position of the mother, democracy in the family, the home ideal," he reasoned. He understood the social studies not as a discipline, but rather a series of studies intended to reveal or emphasize specific social behavior, which he understood as sociological.[76]

Although Jones did disagree with much of the type of social studies instruction taking place, true to his pattern of striving to reach and maintain general agreement, he wanted to see the social studies have a chance to succeed in the schools. He stated, "[i]t is necessary first of all to make a start...let us have some sort of sociology," and "then we can discover more successfully the best sort of sociology to teach."[77] Compromise remained a hallmark of Jones's relationship with educational leaders, and the social studies would prove no different.

On February 24, 1920, the Committee on Social Studies held a meeting in Cleveland, Ohio, "to consider the desirability of supplementing or revising its original report." While the Committee did determine that "there is no occasion to modify the principles set forth in its 1916 report," it was decided to "authorize to appoint a sub-committee" to submit any revisions deemed necessary following a consideration of current practices. Also resolved was that the Committee should work to present "a clearer definition of the subject-matter of the several social studies recommended."[78] Jones was not a member of this newly appointed committee, and it perhaps would have been at this time that his conception of social studies might have found itself at odds with current practice, and the views of others. Because he conceptualized the social studies as a series of studies intended to present a pattern of acceptable social behaviors and values for students to emulate, and not a study dependent on specific disciplines, it is likely that these unreconcilable differences may have been revealed if he had become a member of this committee.

It was also at this meeting in Cleveland that Jones was granted a leave of absence from his work with the Committee on Social Studies due to his upcoming Phelps-Stokes Fund sponsored study of education in Africa. J. Lynn Barnard was appointed to "act as chairman during his absence."[79] It would seem that it was expected that upon return, Jones would resume leadership of the Committee. However, no record of any other meetings of the Committee on Social Studies have been located. Because Jones was still in Africa during the establishment of the National Council for the Social Studies, he also played no significant role in the establishment and professionalization of the field.[illegible] Jones did however, upon return from his Africa trip, manage to attend at least one meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, the third annual meeting, which concluded on February 24, 1923.[illegible]

Conclusions

By the mid 1920s, Thomas Jesse Jones was no longer associated with the social studies in the United States. The social studies developed by Jones at Hampton was intended to contribute to the developing of proper character in the students. As Jones' sociological beliefs led him to understand that minorities needed to be raised to the next higher level of development, the social studies was to aid in doing so. However, the 1916 report was primarily intended to develop good citizens. Through direct involvement in the political process along with intellectual reflection, two attributes not to be found in the Hampton social studies, the 1916 report intended that students would come to understand their place in American society. Furthermore the call for a prominent place in the curriculum for 'Community Civics', and the direct involvement of students in studying and proposing solutions to real community problems was also not a part of the Hampton program.

As an advocate of social control, Jones worked his entire life to ensure the slow, steady improvement of all members of society. Jones viewed all minorities, black, immigrant, and non-Anglo-Saxon, in a similar manner. Whether the problem under study was urban conditions or the plight of minorities, the solution proposed by Jones always included the exact same education program. This education was intended to be an education for life, and also for the community in which the student was a member. To educate the student only for the selfish and self-directed benefit of the individual would be so done to the detriment of all of society, as well as the race of which the student was a member. The student, according to Jones, had to internalize his responsibility and to constantly work for the betterment of all of society. The route to be taken, and the issues and problems to be considered for study by the student, were to be decided by those in positions of power. Jones was, of course, also in the profession of Sociology AND education, both of which were most prominently and appropriately situated to recommend the necessary education program and provide the leadership to the lesser races on their journey of evolutionary progress.

Nowhere in the 1916 report is offered the definitions to many of these critical terms, such as student needs and interests. How were these terms to be interpreted? The sociological training that Jones received was indeed on the wane. As Richard Hofstadter wrote, "The Anglo-Saxon cult, however, had to pull against the great mass of the population, whose ethnic composition and cultural background rendered them immune to its propaganda."[52] This line of sociological reasoning had peaked in terms of its appeal, at the turn of the century. As Jones was educated at that time, and was indeed profoundly influenced by this notion and continued to write on it many years after leaving Columbia University, it was obvious that his brand of sociological theory was out of step with Progressive thought in the United States. This does, however, help explain the relative obscurity of Jones to the social studies field after 1916.

Jones chose to export his brand of sociology, under the banner of the Phelps Stokes Fund, to such foreign lands as Africa and Asia Minor. In these foreign locations, away from competing sociological theories, Jones was able to continue with his sociological studies of non-Anglo-Saxon races.

The 1916 report of The Committee on Social Studies was not a document which reflected a Spencerian point of view. That Jones espoused Spencerian theory prior to his involvement with the Committee is evident. While the report did propose social control and did intend to keep order in society, it did not do so at the expense of individual political participation. Jones's social studies at Hampton, as well as his other writings, all show that he constantly and consistently called upon the individual to subordinate personal needs and wants so as to serve the greater interests of society.

The career of Thomas Jesse Jones is one, upon examination, which reads much like that of a hero in an Horatio Alger story. Through hard work and education the young non-English- speaking immigrant rose to a place of international fame and recognition. That his career encompassed such a variety of settings, from settlement houses, to the social studies, to educational studies of foreign countries, initially seems most extraordinary. However, Jones approached each of these situations with the same basic outlook. That is, no matter the presented situation to be studied, Jones eventually proposed the same solution to all he studied. So whether it was social studies curriculum development, or the education of non-whites, Jones's conception of society led him to develop educational programs that were, and would always be, derivative of his sociological training.

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IV

Selected Annotated Bibliography from the ERIC Database on Social Studies Reform

A SELECT ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY FROM THE ERIC DATABASE ON SOCIAL STUDIES REFORM

by Vickie J. Schlene

Publication in 1983 of *A Nation At Risk* sparked the current wave of curriculum debate and reform. More than 75 years ago, the publication of *The Social Studies in Secondary Education* was part of an era of arguments and actions on curricular change, which had profound effects on teaching and learning in schools. This select annotated bibliography, drawn from the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) database, is an appropriate companion to this reprint of *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, because it guides scholars and practitioners to some of the key documents on social studies curricular reform.

ERIC is an information system of the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) of the U.S. Department of Education. ERIC documents are abstracted monthly in ERIC's *Resources in Education* (*RIE*) index. *RIE* indexes are available in more than 850 libraries throughout the country. These libraries may also have a complete collection of ERIC documents on microfiche for viewing and photocopying. Most ERIC documents may be purchased from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), 7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110, Springfield, VA 22153-2852, in microfiche (MF). Some documents may also be available in paper copy (PC). The telephone numbers are (703) 404-1400 or (800) 443-3742. The FAX number is (703) 440-1408. When ordering by mail, be sure to include the ED number, specify either MF or PC, if available, and enclose a check or money order.

The types of documents in this annotated bibliography are social studies frameworks of state-level departments of education, studies of the teaching and learning of particular subjects, such as history, geography, civics, and economics, and reports with recommendations about how to improve the teaching and learning of these subjects. In addition, there are a few citations of exemplary instructional materials. The documents listed below are not an exhaustive listing of the relevant items in the ERIC database. Rather, they are representative of the best documents on curricular reform in the social studies, which can be found in the ERIC database.

All of the journal article annotations, which include EJ numbers, appear in the *Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE)*. *CIJE*, published on a monthly basis, is available at larger libraries throughout the country. The annotations are intended to briefly describe the contents of the articles in general terms. Therefore, it is suggested that the reader locate the entire article in the journal section of a larger public or university library. Reprints of the article may be available from University Microfilms International (UMI), 300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106, (800) 732-0616.

Readers are encouraged to complete their own searches of the ERIC database to discover new items which are constantly being added to the system. Educators will find these documents and articles valuable resources for fostering understanding, application, and evaluation of the wealth of information being published concerning the on-going debates on social studies reform, which are associated with the publication over 75 years ago of *The Social Studies in Secondary Education*.

Adams, Ron, and others. *Social Studies in the Nineties: An NHCSS Statement*. Littleton, NH: New Hampshire Council for the Social Studies, 1990. ED 340 625.

A guide to the basic goals, structure, and methods of the social studies for New Hampshire is outlined. Recommendations on instructions, scope and sequence, assessment, minimum requirements, alternative learning experiences, teacher's preparation, and funding are included. A six-item bibliography of selected resources concludes the document.

Alberta Department of Education. *Social Studies: Teacher Resource Manual, Senior High*. Edmonton, Alberta, Canada: Alberta Department of Education, 1990. ED 330 603.

Developed to help Alberta, Canada, teachers implement a new sequence of social studies courses, this teacher resource manual offers suggestions for organizing, teaching, and evaluating the new program, and supplies additional information about the program.

Alleman, Janet, and Jere Brophy. *Is Curriculum Integration a Boon or a Threat to Social Studies? Research Series No. 204*. East Lansing, MI: Institute for Research on Teaching, 1991. ED 337 388.

Educators tend to view curriculum integration as an obviously good idea and thus adopt an attitude of "the more integration, the better." However, the analysis of elementary social studies presented in this report indicates that many of the activities suggested in the name of integration either lack education value in any subject or promote progress toward significant goals in another subject, but not in social studies.

Allen, Michael G. *Middle Level Social Studies: Teaching for Transition to Active and Responsible Citizenship*. Rowley, MA: New England League of Middle Schools, 1990. ED 340 623.

This publication considers some of the salient issues in the field of social studies, explores ways to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the important developmental stage of early adolescence, and discusses how to recognize the importance of developing and implementing sound social studies programs based on this knowledge.

Allen, Russell, and others. *The Geographic Learning of High School Seniors.* Princeton, NJ: National Assessment of Educational Progress, Educational Testing Service, 1990. ED 313 317.

This report presents results of the 1988 National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) survey of the geographic knowledge and skills of high school seniors. A national stratified sample of more than 3,000 twelfth graders from 300 public and private schools responded to seventy-six multiple-choice questions about four topics in geography: (1) knowing locations, such as countries, cities, and physical places; (2) using the skills and tools of geography, such as map and globe symbols and longitude and latitude; (3) understanding cultural geography, including human-environment relationships and cultural change; and (4) understanding physical geography, including climate, weather, tectonics, and erosion.

American Federation of Teachers. *Education for Democracy: A Statement of Principles. Guidelines for Strengthening the Teaching of Democratic Values.* Washington, DC: American Federation of Teachers, 1987. ED 313 217.

Based on the premise that democracy's values will not survive if they are not purposefully transmitted to successive generations, this booklet proposes that U.S. schools increase efforts to improve citizenship education. The featured issues are the reasons improvements are needed, what citizens need to know, and the role of humanities and history instruction as the core of democratic education.

Anderson, Lee, and others. *The Civics Report Card: Trends in Achievement for 1976 to 1988 at Ages 13 and 17; Achievement in 1988 at Grades 4, 8, and 12.* Princeton, NJ: National Assessment of Educational Progress, Educational Testing Service, 1990. ED 315 376.

This report summarizes findings from two national surveys of U.S. civics achievement conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. Part 1 reports on a trend assessment of students at ages thirteen and seventeen, carried out during the 1975-76, 1981-82, and 1987-88 school years. Chapter 1 summarizes national trends, trends for demographic subpopulations, trends in students' ability to define democracy, and trends in students' ability to identify the value of multiple newspaper publishers. Part 2 reports on patterns of achievement of fourth-, eighth-, and twelfth-grade students in 1988. Chapter 2 summarizes the levels of civics proficiency across the grades. Chapter 3 compares civics proficiency across subpopulations defined by gender, race and ethnicity, region, and other characteristics. Chapter 4 explores students' performances in specific content areas such as democratic principles and the purpose of government, political processes, and rights, responsibilities, and the law. Chapter 5 describes the amount of instruction students reported receiving in civics, while chapter 6 discusses the topics studied and the instructional approaches used in these

classes. Appendices contain procedural information and tables of statistical data that supplement the information in the text.

Arizona State Department of Education. *Arizona Social Studies Essential Skills*. Phoenix: Arizona State Department of Education, 1989. ED 324 259.
The Arizona Social Studies Framework formulates goals for student competency in four broad categories: knowledge and cultural understanding, understanding of democratic principles, individual and group participation in social political affairs, and fundamental skill attainment for effective citizenship.

Arkansas State Department of Education. *Social Studies, Grades 4-8: Arkansas Public School Course Content Guide*. Little Rock: Arkansas State Department of Education, 1990. ED 322 061.
This course content guide identifies the objectives that form the basis for social studies in grades 4-8 in Arkansas schools. Classroom teachers, curriculum specialists, administrators, professors, and the Department of Education personnel participated in the guide's development.

Bahmueller, Charles F. *The Core Ideas of "CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education." ERIC Digest*. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1992. ED 346 016.
"CIVITAS" is a curriculum framework that specifies core ideas for civic education in the U.S. constitutional democracy. It reviews what adults should know and be able to do as effective citizens. CIVITAS was developed by the Center for Civic Education in cooperation with the Council for the Advancement of Citizenship and with support from the Pew Charitable Trusts. More than 60 scholars contributed to this project as consultants and authors of various part of the book. This ERIC digest highlights core ideas in "CIVITAS" on the rationale for civic education. It also addresses educational goals and substantive ideas for teachers on civic virtue, civic participation skills, and civic knowledge.

Barr, Robert D., and others. *Defining the Social Studies. Bulletin 51*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977. ED 146 083.
The bulletin probes the debate over the nature of social studies and considers the role of social studies in the curriculum. It is intended to be a clarification of the field of social studies for textbook authors, curriculum developers, and educators.

Barth, James L., and S. Samuel Shermis. "Nineteenth Century Origins of the Social Studies Movement: Understanding the Continuity between Older and Contemporary Civic and U.S. History Textbooks." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 8 (Fall 1980): 29-49. EJ 237 562.

This article compares selected United States history and civics textbooks from the 19th century with textbooks written from 1960 to 1980. Findings from this comparison indicated that despite differences in size and emphasis, stress and artistic appearance, United States history and civics texts of the present are essentially what they have always been—celebrations of great men, great events, and a great destiny.

Barth, James L. "Social Studies Is the Subject to Change." *Social Studies Teacher 4* (April-May 1988): 1,4. EJ 371 123.

This article notes that social studies is a phenomena of the twentieth century, a field created as a response by educators to the crisis and chaos they perceived at the turn of the century. It states that social studies has, since its founding, reflected concern for how change will occur and how it will be controlled.

Bennett, William J. *First Lessons. A Report on Elementary Education in America. By the U.S. Secretary of Education.* Washington, DC: Department of Education, 1986. ED 270 236.

Aided by a 21-member Elementary Education Study Group, the Secretary of Education has prepared the first comprehensive report on elementary education in the United States in more than three decades. The report finds America's elementary schools in pretty good shape, and states that they do their job especially well in the early grades, only beginning to falter around the fourth grade. The report provides a detailed discussion of the current condition of elementary education in the United States and makes specific recommendations about how the elementary school can be improved through state and local initiatives.

Bennett, William J. *James Madison High School. A Curriculum for American Students.* Washington, DC: Department of Education, 1987. ED 287 854.

This document presents the Secretary of Education's personal concept of a sound secondary school core curriculum. The theoretical curriculum consists of four years of English, and three years each of social studies, mathematics, and science, two years each of foreign language and physical education, and a half-year each of art and music. A brief discussion is offered on the desirability of a curriculum that makes available a shared body of knowledge and skills, a common language of ideas, and a common moral and intellectual discipline.

Bingham, Marjorie. "Thoughts on Being a Teacher on the Bradley Commission." *History Teacher* 23 (November 1989): 53-58. EJ 409 566.

This article discusses the thoughts, trepidations, and experiences of a history teacher serving on the Bradley Commission History in Schools and recounts the conflicts that arose during the conference, especially the conflict between narrative versus social history. It outlines the Bradley Commission's recommendations that are most useful to teachers.

Bradley Commission on History in Schools. *Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in the Schools.* Washington, DC: Educational Excellence Network, 1988. ED 310 008.

The Bradley Commission on History in Schools was created in 1987 in response to concern over the inadequacy of the history taught in U.S. elementary and secondary classrooms. These history curriculum guidelines were designed by the Bradley Commission to help those responsible for making curriculum decisions realize the manifest importance of developing and maintaining a vigorous history curriculum. The Commission recommends that (1) historical studies focus on thematic context and chronological perspective to develop critical judgment capabilities; (2) the curricular time required to develop genuine understanding in history programs be considerably greater than that currently allowed; (3) the K-6 social studies curriculum be history-centered; (4) no fewer than four years of history be required between grades seven and twelve; (5) this curriculum include the historical experiences of peoples from all parts of the world and all constituent parts of those societies; and (6) a substantial program of history, with suitable structure and content, be required for certification of social studies teachers in middle and high schools. Thirty-two topics are suggested for the study of U.S. history, world civilization, and western civilization. Curricular patterns or course sequences are presented for both K-6 (three patterns) and middle and high schools (four patterns). Criteria are also given for the examination of the structure, priority, and content of courses.

Bradley Commission on History in Schools. "Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History in Schools." *History Teacher* 23 (November 1989): 7-35. EJ 409 563.

This article presents the Bradley Commission on History in Schools' recommendations that history become the core of the social studies curriculum and identifies six themes of historical inquiry, and outlines topics for the study of U.S. history, Western Civilization, and world history. It also analyzes the place of history in all grades and suggests changes in curriculum.

Brodkey, Jerry. " "Charting a Course": Rewriting the Familiar." *Social Education* 55 (January 1991): 26-27. EJ 426 382.

This article argues that the National Commission for Social Studies 1989 report, "Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century" is too conservative. It notes the trend-setting recommendation to integrate U.S. and world history, sequencing through grades 9-11 may be impractical. It also points out the proposal for intensive study of local history at seventh grade is an exciting approach.

Burson, George. "A Lack of Vision: The Bradley Commission Report." *History Teacher* 23 (November 1989): 59-71. EJ 409 567.

This article discusses the limitations of the Bradley Commission on

History in Schools report and critiques the History Advanced Placement Examination, and outlines suggestions for its improvement. It also presents the Aspen High School, Colorado, solution to the inadequacy of a one-year U.S. history curriculum and the lack of a global view. In addition, it examines the role of history in the universities.

Butts, R. Freeman. *The Morality of Democratic Citizenship: Goals for Civic Education in the Republic's Third Century.* Calabasas, CA: Center for Civic Education, 1988. ED 341 593.

In recent years, a number of political and educational leaders and groups have urged the nation's public schools to place a greater emphasis on teaching civic values and on educating students to become citizens. This book puts forth the civic values and ideas that schools should be teaching. The volume is not a handbook or curriculum guide, but is designed to broaden the perspective of curriculum specialists, textbook authors, teachers, and educational policymakers. In the first three chapters of this four-chapter book, the study of and learning about history, the study of and learning about constitutional principles, and the study of and learning about conceptions of citizenship are examined. The final chapter offers a set of twelve ideas and civic values that should suffuse teaching and learning in the schools. These twelve values are justice, equality, authority, participation, truth, patriotism, freedom, diversity, privacy, due process, property, and human rights.

California State Department of Education. *History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools.* Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1988. ED 293 779.

This framework, centered in the chronological study of history, proposes an integrated and correlated approach to the teaching of history and the social sciences. The framework is structured around three major goals, each comprising several curriculum strands which are to be developed for grades K-12. The three goals are knowledge and cultural understanding, democratic understanding and cultural values and skills attainment and social participation.

California State Department of Education. *Literature for History-Social Science, Kindergarten Through Grade Eight.* Sacramento, CA: California Department of Education, 1991. ED 341 611.

The use of literature in the history-social science curriculum has been found to be an effective means of generating students' interest, enhancing their understanding, and enriching the curriculum. This annotated guide contains listings of books to be used in teaching students in grades K-8 that have been selected as particularly helpful in the study of history and geography. The use of literature of the historical period being studied, as well as literature about that period, is emphasized. This guide is offered as a resource of titles for use by curriculum specialists, teachers, librarians, and resource personnel when planning a curriculum. A wide variety of books are listed in the guide, including historical fiction, biography, fables, myths and legends, folktales and fairy tales, nonfiction, poetry, plays, and songs.

California State Department of Education. *Readings for Teachers of United States History and Government*. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1990. ED 339 657.

An annotated list of readings is suggested for high school teachers of U.S. history and geography at grade eleven and for teachers of courses in the principals of democracy at grade twelve. The list was designed for use in California, where the eleventh grade curriculum emphasizes twentieth century U.S. history and the twelfth grade concentrates on the institution of U.S. government and the comparison of different styles of government in the world today. Although the bibliography was prepared for use by California teachers, teachers from around the U.S. and other parts of the world might find it a useful resource. Principles of selection for the list include the following: Each book must be germane to the subject at hand, each must deal with a significant aspect of the subject, and each must be interesting and readable. The reading list has six sections: historical fiction, biography and autobiography, contemporary public affairs, books about education, U.S. history, and European and world history.

Calmel, Louis. *The Current Debate in the Social Studies Discipline Regarding an Emphasis on Content and Process*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Catholic Educational Association, New York, 1988. ED 302 475.

The current debate about social studies education is the focus of this paper, and the questions and the charges raised by recent surveys and reports are addressed. Survey results from the Ravitch and Finn, the Chandler, and the National Catholic Educational Association studies reflecting student ignorance of social studies knowledge are discussed.

Cheney, Lynne V. *American Memory: A Report on the Humanities in the Nation's Public Schools*. Washington, DC: National Endowment for the Humanities (NEAH), 1987. ED 283 775.

An extensive study of humanities education in the nation's public schools, commissioned by the United States Congress, concludes that history, literature, and languages are inadequately taught, and most students fail to learn important knowledge about their shared past and culture. In general, a long-standing purpose of U.S. public education — transmission of a common culture to all students—is in jeopardy. This study points to emphasis on process over content as the fundamental deficiency in humanities education. Curriculum guides and textbooks emphasize practical skills at the expense of knowledge; processes in thinking and doing have a higher priority than subject matter.

Clow, John E., and others. *Economics and Entrepreneurship, Teaching Strategies: Master Curriculum Guide*. New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1991. ED 326 653.

Designed for high school teachers of economics, social studies, and business education, this teaching package provides materials for a course that combines study of basic economic concepts with an understanding of entrepreneurship. The teacher resource manual consists of three parts. Part 1 is an overview of the relationship between economics and entrepreneurship education. Part 2 contains seventeen lessons: entrepreneurs; characteristics of entrepreneurs; human capital; scarcity; economic systems; markets; entrepreneurial innovation; interdependence of entrepreneurial activities; demand; supply; market equilibrium; profits; business organization; borrowing competitive markets; demand for labor; and government intervention.

Cooperman, Saul, and Joel Bloom. *Education for an Effective Citizenry: Civics Curriculum Guide*. Trenton: New Jersey State Department of Education, 1990. ED 323 158.

Civic education in a democracy is a central goal of the public schools. The purpose of civics education is to educate youth to enable them to participate in a democracy. This guide highlights the components of a K-12 civics curriculum which features knowledge, democratic ideals, skills, and social participation. Sample lessons, state goals and objectives, a list of resources and programs, and a twenty-item bibliography is included.

Crabtree, Charlotte, ed., and others. *Lessons From History: Essential Understandings and Historical Perspectives Students Should Acquire*. Los Angeles, CA: National Center for History in the Schools, 1992. ED 348 321.

This volume seeks to answer the question, "What history should schools teach?" It makes a case of why the teaching of history is vital, and features an interpretation of both U.S. and world history. The chapter on U.S. history is organized into 14 units that correspond to major historical eras. The chapter on world history is divided into 6 units. In each chapter, the materials are presented under three major topic headings, including Significance and Teaching Goals, Major Topics, and Major Topics and Their Development.

The Current State of Social Studies: A Report of Project SPAN. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1982. ED 218 19.

This volume, one in a series resulting from Project SPAN (Social Studies/Social Science Education: Priorities, Practices, and Needs), reviews and analyzes the current state of K-12 social studies. A major purpose of the review and analysis was to form a basis for recommendations for future directions that might be taken to improve social studies.

Curriculum Task Force of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools. *Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century.* Washington, DC: National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools, 1989. ED 317 450.

Part 1 of this report covers the recommended social studies curriculum for grades K-12. Part 2 discusses the research basis for curriculum choice. Part 3 contains essays prepared by representatives of the professional associations holding membership in the Social Science Association's Task Force for Pre-College Education. These essays provide perspectives from the fields of anthropology, economics, U.S. history, world history, political science, psychology, and sociology.

Davis, James E. *The Social Studies and A Nation At Risk. ERIC Digest.* Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1984. ED 253 464.

The reactions of social studies educators to "A Nation At Risk," the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education that examined the quality of education in the United States, are discussed.

Dunn, Ross E. "Culture and Process in the World History Course: The Case of the New California Framework." *Social Studies Review* 29 (Winter 1990): 10-22. EJ 414 076.

This article critiques the California History Social Science Framework's structuring of world history and suggests some ideas for developing conceptual and organizational course models that can effectively accommodate the framework's subject matter recommendations while presenting a more holistic view of world history.

The Education Reform Decade. Policy Information Report. Princeton, NJ: Education Testing Service, 1990. ED 326 549.

An overview of educational reforms during the 1980s (1978-88) and their effects is presented for use by policy makers, practitioners, and interested citizens. The "education-reform decade" is most identified with state-level reform laws and policy changes that were initiated and carried out by governors and state legislatures. Data on educational improvement are reviewed in several areas, including civics.

Ehrhardt, Cathryn. *Curriculum Revolution: History-Social Studies—K-12!* Alexandria, VA: National School Boards Association, 1988. ED 298 630.

In 1985, California launched a 2-year curriculum reform initiative in history and social science that could eventually bring new standards of learning in these areas. Professional studies and student surveys relate a common message: a more extensive, literature-based, issue and idea-oriented curriculum, and better teaching methods would increase student knowledge and enthusiasm for their national and international heritage.

Fleming, Dan B. *Social Studies Reform and Global Education: California, New York, and the Report of the National Commission on Social Studies.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Social Science Education Consortium, 1990. ED 340 631.

There has been a movement in social studies education in recent years to provide greater emphasis on global education. This paper evaluates efforts undertaken in this regard by the states of California and New York, and by the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools.

Florida Commission on Social Studies Education. *Connections, Challenges, Choices.* Tallahassee: Florida Department of Education, 1990. ED 364 455.

This report includes recommendations for the Florida K-12 social studies program of study. It also specifies intended outcomes, course content, and teaching strategies for social studies in the elementary and secondary schools of Florida. Finally, the report sets forth a vision of the social studies that emphasizes common learnings based on the subject matter of history and geography.

Florida Department of Education. *Curriculum Frameworks for Grades 6-8 Basic Programs: Social Studies.* Tallahassee: Florida Department of Education, 1990. ED 339 656.

This curriculum framework specifies intended outcomes and major concepts for social studies courses at grades 608. Courses include United States history, geography, civics, law studies, and world cultures. There are specifications for basic and advanced treatments of each course at each grade.

Florida Department of Education. *Curriculum Frameworks for Grades 9-12 Basic and Adult Secondary Programs: Social Studies.* Tallahassee: Florida Department of Education, 1990. ED 295 184.

Curriculum frameworks for grades 9-12 are descriptions of the courses offered at the high school grades. Intended outcomes and major concepts are specified for each course in the curriculum. Courses treated include American government, civics, law studies, world history, American history, economics, and philosophy.

The Future of the Social Studies: A Report and Summary of Project SPAN. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1982. ED 218 200.

The future of K-12 social studies is examined in this volume, one in a series resulting from Project SPAN (Social Studies/Social Science Education: Priorities, Practices, and Needs). Project SPAN reviewed and analyzed the current state of K-12 social studies in order to form a basis for recommendations for future directions that might be taken to improve social studies.

Gagnon, Paul. *Democracy's Half-Told Story: What American History Textbooks Should Add.* Washington, DC: American Federation of Teachers, 1989. ED 313 305.

The first purpose of a high school course in U.S. history must be to help students understand the essence of democracy and those events, institutions, and forces that have either promoted or obstructed it. This review examines five textbooks and analyzes how useful they are in aiding that process, and how they might be made more helpful. The five texts are *A History of the United States* (D. Boorstin and B. Kelley), *History of a Free People* (H. Bragdon and S. McCutchen), *The United States: A History of the Republic* (J. Davidson and M. Lytle), *People and Our Country* (N. Risjord and T. Haywoode), and *Triumph of the American Nation* (L. Todd and M. Curti). The texts are reviewed using topic divisions such as "History's Role in Civic Education," "Old World Backgrounds," "Civil War and Emancipation," "Change and Reform Before World War I," and "Depression, New Deal, and War Again."

Gagnon, Paul. *Democracy's Untold Story: What World History Textbooks Neglect.* Washington, DC: American Federation of Teachers, 1987. ED 313 268.

Content weakness in textbooks is a major obstacle to effective social studies teaching. Chapters 1-3 of this book provide the Education for Democracy Project's Statement of Principles, a consideration of history's role as the core of social studies education, and the role of textbooks in teaching world history. This book concludes that these world history textbooks tend to neglect democracy's ideas, principles, origins, needs, and significance and that, when included, these concepts are not systematically presented. Teachers may not be able to rely on world history textbooks to convey and teach the concepts of struggles for freedom, self-government, and justice.

Geographic Education National Implementation Project. *Geography in Grades 7-12: Themes, Key Ideas, and Learning Opportunities.* Indiana, PA: National Council for Geographic Education, 1989. ED 322 028.

This volume presents a framework for developing courses of study in geography at grade levels 7-12. Several sample courses illustrate how the framework may be used. Five fundamental themes in geographic education provide the basis for the framework. The suggested learning opportunities are designed to incorporate various levels of thinking and direct attention to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that result in a total geography course. The cognitive skills that are developed in these courses are grouped as follows: asking geographic questions; acquiring geographic information; presenting geographic data; interpreting and analyzing geographic information; developing and testing hypotheses and geographic generalizations. A glossary of selected terms and a list of references are included.

Gardner, David, and others. *A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform. An Open Letter to the American People. A Report to the Nation and the Secretary of Education.* Washington, DC: National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983. ED 226 006.

This report investigates the declining state of the educational system in America; identifies specific problem areas; and offers multiple recommendations for improvement. Recommendations pertaining to content include the strengthening of high school graduation requirements by establishing minimum requirements for each student of: (a) 4 years of English; (b) 3 years of mathematics; (c) 3 years of science; (d) 3 years of social studies; and (e) one-half year of computer science.

Gritzner, Charles F., and others. *Geographic Literacy: Essential in a Global Age.* Reston, VA: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1986. ED 275 608.

In the face of widespread geographic ignorance, the article applauds the improved status of geography in the schools, describing it as the science best able to meet the challenge of ensuring that students' mental maps of the world are filled in with great and accurate detail. Citing the guidelines for geographic education formulated in 1984 by the National Council for Geographic Education and the Association of American Geographers, the article addresses the task of properly revising or designing a geography curriculum by highlighting the five central themes of geography education and recommending a scope of instruction that lists 12 courses of study for grades 7 through 12. An implementation project to improve the status and quality of geography instruction based on the guidelines is described as it exists in four schools.

Haas, John D. *The Era of the New Social Studies.* Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1977. ED 141 191.

Tracing from 1955 to the present, the author presents an objective analysis of the new social studies movement which has had great impact on the theory and practice of social studies education. Briefly discussing the advancements in science and mathematics, the author focuses his attention on the beginning of the revolution in social studies, discussing the changes in the conceptual foundations of social sciences and the government funded curriculum materials projects. The author notes in retrospect that social studies education today again seems to be looking for a focus and suggests a renewal of the dialogue and debate concerning definition, scope, and sequence to add impetus for social studies educators to rediscover, and reclarify their positions.

Hammack, David C., and others. *The U.S. History Report Card: The Achievement of Fourth, Eighth, and Twelfth-grade Students in 1988 and Trends* *from 1986 to 1988 in the Factual Knowledge of High School Juniors.* Princeton, NJ: National Assessment of Educational Progress, Educational Testing Service, 1990. ED 315 377.

Each of the three parts of this report provides a somewhat different perspective on U.S. students' knowledge and understanding of U.S. history. Part 1 summarizes the assessment performance of fourth-, eighth-, and twelfth-grade students based on the National Assessment of Educational Progress history proficiency scale. Many tables of statistical data are included.

Hanson, Ralph, ed., and Diane Brooks. *World History and Geography: Ancient Civilizations. Course Models for the History-Social Science Framework: Grade 6.* Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1993. ED 358 022.

This document outlines ancient civilization teaching models from California sixth graders. It is another response to teachers' requests for practical assistance in implementing the "History-Social Science Framework." The units provide textual material, illustrations, suggestions for student learning activities, annotated bibliographies, and appendices.

Harmon-Byser, Sue, and Dixie M. Bocallao. "Building a History Curriculum: Guidelines for Teaching History." *Georgia Social Science Journal* 21 (Spring 1990): 17-18. EJ 411 115.

This article critiques the recommendations proposed by the Bradley Commission on History in Schools' report on the state of history in the schools. It maintains that the recommendations are too narrowly centered, and points out that few members of the commission were from the public schools. It challenges the supposition that more history leads to good citizens.

Hartoonian, H. Michael, and Hilary Stock. *A Guide to Curriculum Planning in Global Studies.* Madison, WI: Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction, 1992. ED 356 176.

This guide is designed to assist educators develop curricula to embrace global perspectives. The guide is organized into five sections dealing with global studies, including identifying themes and topics of global studies and providing a number of sample teaching units for all grade levels.

Haynes, Charles C. *Religion in American History: What To Teach and How.* Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1990. ED 320 843.

It is clear that there is a new consensus in this country supporting teaching about religion and religious liberty in public schools. For too long educators have misunderstood the distinction between teaching religion, which is unconstitutional, and teaching about religion, which is not only constitutional but necessary for a sound education. This book is a guide for social studies teachers who wish to teach about the influence of religion and religious events in U.S. history. Part 1 of the book provides a comprehensive list of the significant religious influences in the history of the nation. Part 2 describes a practical method for natural inclusion of religious influences using original source documents. Teachers are urged to copy and use the thirteen facsimiles in the book and the background information that accompanies each one to help students interpret history based on their own reading of the documents. Part 3 contains consensus statements and general guidelines for teaching about religion in a public school setting.

Hertzberg, Hazel Whitman. *Social Studies Reform 1880-1980*. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1981. ED 211 429.

The purposes, methodologies, and curricula of the social studies over the past 100 years are examined in this paper. This history was written to provide a useful background for current efforts to reform the social studies. The paper begins with a discussion of the meanings, definitions, and beginnings of the social studies.

Hertzberg, Hazel Whitman. "Foundations. The 1892 Committee of Ten." *Social Education* 52 (February 1988): 144-45. EJ 265 372.

This article discusses the Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy of the National Education Association (NEA), known as the "Committee of Ten" which met in December 1892. It describes the committee's recommendations which, among other things, called for the movement away from rote memorization toward newer educational methods which served to "broaden and cultivate" the mind and promote critical thinking.

History-Social Science Goals and Curriculum Strands. Model Curriculum Guide, Kindergarten through Grade Eight. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1992. ED 354 210.

This guide is intended to assist California educators responsible for implementing the state's K-8 history-social science curriculum and provide practical ideas for bringing this curriculum into alignment with the History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools, Kindergarten through Grade Twelve. The guide puts forth 10 principles for development of the curriculum. The principles are categorized by three broad themes: chronological history, integrated with geography, as the basis for the curriculum; ethics, civic values and the dignity of all peoples; and unifying the curriculum. Much of this guide is devoted to discussing the strands and demonstrating how they are reflected in course content by providing sample topics, questions, activities, and exemplars. The guide offers a broad range of ideas, topics, and suggested resources and respects the professionalism of educators as decision makers.

Holt, Tom. *Thinking Historically: Narrative Imagination and Understanding.* New York: College Board, 1990. ED 341 589.

In this book, a professional historian provides a personal narrative of how he thinks about teaching history. While the historian's experience seems, at first glance, to be removed from that of secondary teachers, it is to such teachers that his account is directed. The historian stresses that the essential questions about teaching history are the same at all levels. The document opens the practice of a historian to view and, in so doing, asks teachers to examine their assumptions about their work. The historian's own assumptions about teaching history include the following: Student misconceptions must be explored, not ignored; teachers must be models of mindfulness; strong teaching includes values and choices; a "basic skills" approach postpones learning; the meaning of "higher order skills" must be reexamined; authentic materials prompt thinking; and students know more than educators think. A list of references is included.

Huffman, Lewis E. *Social Studies Curriculum Standards, K-12.* Dover: Delaware State Department of Public Instruction, 1990. ED 339 656.

This guide contains social studies curriculum standards for grades K-12 and is meant to be used by school district administrators and teachers in Delaware to develop their local social studies program. The guide is not meant to offer day-to-day lesson plans; rather, it is intended to be used by administrators and teachers as a guide to the selection of strategies and materials to achieve the included goals and objectives.

Hunter, Kathleen, ed. *Heritage Education Resource Guide.* Washington, DC: National Trust for Historic Preservation, 1990. ED 339 630.

Heritage education is defined as teaching and learning about U.S. history and culture. It is an interdisciplinary approach to education that encompasses subjects like architecture, art, community planning, social history, politics, conservation, and transportation. This guide is intended to help persons identify information about heritage education programs and materials. Listing over three hundred resources, the information highlights are available through museums, historic sites, and national, state, city, and town organizations, as well as through consultants and authors. The guide can be used to network among current practitioners in heritage education and can direct them to the various kinds of programs and educational materials.

Jackson, Kenneth T. "The Bradley Commission on History in Schools: A Retrospective View." *History Teacher* 23 (November 1989): 73-78. EJ 409 568.

This article discusses the genesis of the Bradley Commission on History in Schools and provides a response to several of the criticisms launched against the commission. It also maintains that several of the criticisms are correct and explains why.

Joint Committee on Geographic Education. *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools.* Washington, DC: Association of American Geographers, 1984. ED 252 453.

Intended as a current statement for improving geographic education, these guidelines suggest major changes needed to counteract a prevailing illiteracy in geography among U.S. citizens. A preface and problem statement provide a rationale for including geography education as a subject of study in the schools and as a scientific mode of inquiry. A section on the content and process of geographic education (1) demonstrates how geographic education focuses on five central themes, how these themes recur and are amplified throughout the curriculum, and how they should be represented in the various levels of our schools; (2) suggests how schools can integrate these themes; (3) identifies the knowledge, skills, and perspectives students should gain from a systematic program in geographic education; and (4) suggests a variety of approaches to geography that each theme might imply.

Keels, Oliver M., Jr. *Reforming the Social Studies: An Exploration of Failure.* Paper presented at annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1980. ED 204 199.

Various explanations are explored for the alleged failure of social studies educators to redefine and restructure the high school social studies curriculum in light of indications at various periods throughout the late 19th and 20th centuries that changes were imminent. The author alleges most reforms, including the 1916 Committee on the Social Studies decree, failed to reform the social studies because they sought to merge content and social action without basically altering the social studies curriculum or changing the labels of the traditional disciplines. Historically, since the late 19th century, secondary level social studies has been a body of subject content and textbook material gleaned from social scientific and historical research and writings. For the most part, content has been based on history and political science and has consisted largely of descriptive material and non-controversial generalizations.

Keels, Oliver M., Jr. "The Collegiate Influence on the Early Social Studies Curriculum: A Reassessment of the Role of Historians." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 8 (Fall 1980): 105-28. EJ 237 566.

This article investigates the founding of the social studies curriculum and suggests that researchers have tended to offer overly simplistic interpretations. It urges that researchers pay more attention to reassessing the role of historians in secondary social studies from 1890 to 1911, evaluating the broad institutional relationships of high schools and colleges, and reexamining the changing nature of higher education and social science.

Keels, Oliver M., Jr. "Herbert Baxter Adams and the Influence of the American Historical Association on the Early Social Studies." *International Journal of Social Education* 3 (Winter 1988-89): 37-49. EJ 392 898.

This article discusses the influence Herbert Baxter Adams and the American Historical Association had on the development of the social studies curriculum. It focuses upon the ideological struggles within the discipline of history in order to understand the nature of the ideas from which the dominant trends in the social studies have developed.

Kemball, Walter G., and others. *K-6 Geography: Themes, Key Ideas, and Learning Opportunities.* Indiana, PA: National Council for Geographic Education, 1987. ED 288 807.

This implementation guide is based upon the themes, geographic concepts, and suggested learning outcomes contained in *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools.* The central themes for geographic education are location (position on the earth's surface); place (physical and human characteristics); relationships within places (humans and environment); movement (humans interacting on the earth); and regions (how they form and change). Resources are given for preparing daily lesson plans, curriculum guidelines, and resource materials. Key ideas and learning opportunities for each grade level are developed around the five themes. Each learning opportunity statement is designed to include various levels of thinking and to direct attention to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of geographic education. The central focus progresses from the study of self in space in kindergarten to the study of world regions at the sixth grade. The document can be used to evaluate existing programs or to develop new ones. A list of selected terms in geographic education is included.

Leavey, Don. "Implementing the New State Framework for History-Social Studies of (Tenth Grade Level)." *Social Studies Review* 29 (Winter 1990): 23-26. EJ 414 077.

This article describes the experience of implementing the new California History-Social Science Framework at the tenth grade level at Edison High School, Huntington Beach, California. It discusses the anxieties felt by teachers as they omitted areas of world history to teach selected topics in greater depth. It also presents the world history course structure that was developed to bring the new framework into the classroom.

Louisiana State Department of Education. *American History Guide.* Baton Rouge: Louisiana State Department of Education, 1989. ED 328 469.

The state of Louisiana's curriculum guide for the American history course is presented. Subdivided into four to seven units, the six sections of the course are (1) Toward a New Nation; (2) Conflict and Reunion; (3)

Emergence of Modern America; (4) conflict and International Power; (5) Global Change and Conflict; and (6) Problem and Prospects. For each part of the course content outlined, an objective, concepts, generalizations, and activities are listed. The Louisiana Social Studies Program Rationale and Curriculum Goals are included, as are a bibliography and a section on evaluative techniques. A two part appendix contains (1) skills that are a major responsibility of social studies and (2) skills that are a definite, but shared, responsibility of social studies.

Lybarger, Michael. *Origins and Rationale of the Early Social Studies Curriculum: 1900-1916. Draft.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1975. ED 121 646.

This paper presents an historical perspective on social studies curriculum development from 1900 to 1916. The author's main purpose in tracing the origins and rationale of social studies during these years is to locate the educational thought that resulted in the creation of the social studies in its societal context. The paper discusses specific civics and social studies curricula, reports from the Social Studies Committee of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education (CRSE), and early social studies textbooks. The paper focuses on the committee's recommendations about the problems of democracy and the history courses. It is concluded that, the demand for social efficiency upon the development of social studies in its formative years was immediate and significant. The report recommends that school personnel make a more concentrated effort to consider their work in an historical context.

Lybarger, Michael. "The Political Context of the Social Studies: Creating a Constituency for Municipal Reform." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 8 (Fall 1980): 1-27. EJ 237 561.

This article places the recommendations in the 1916 reports of the Committee on the Social Studies within the context of progressive reform—particularly, reformation of city governments through efforts of the National Municipal League. Information is presented on federal and state reforms between 1913 and 1920, civic education, political aims of civic education, and criteria of social studies curricula in 1916.

Lybarger, Michael. "Origins of the Modern Social Studies: 1900-1916." *History of Education Quarterly* 23 (Winter 1983): 455-68. EJ 300 533.

Objectives and content of the social studies curriculum from 1900-1916 at the Hampton Institute, a trade school for Blacks in Hampton, Virginia, are described, and the extent to which these goals and content were reflected in recommendations published in 1916 by the Committee on Social Studies are examined.

Maryland Geographic Alliance. *Geography in the Middle School: A Compendium of Lesson Plans for Social Studies and Other Subject Areas.* Baltimore, MD: Maryland Geographic Alliance, 1990. ED 322 065.

The geography lesson plans included in this packet of materials were prepared for middle school students. Lessons are divided into three categories according to the present school social studies curriculum: world cultures, United States history, and interdisciplinary focus. The lesson plans incorporate the five fundamental themes of location, place, human/environmental interaction, movement, and region. They are designed to provide the student with the skills necessary to prepare maps, tables, graphs, and an organized, coherent written or oral presentation. In addition, the lessons teach interpretation of trends portrayed on a line graph and the analysis of the relationship between information on two or more maps. The students also learn to develop and test hypotheses and make geographic generalizations. Maps, graphs, charts, and other reproducible visual aids are included.

Massachusetts Council for the Social Studies. *Excellence in Social Studies Education: The Foundation of Active Citizenship.* Boston: Massachusetts State Department of Education, 1989. ED 310 977.

Social studies programs have not received the attention they deserve in the last decade. This document is meant to help Massachusetts school districts strengthen the teaching of social studies at all grade levels. The rationale section offers direction about the need for and the primary purpose of social studies education, namely, citizen education. The section on teaching social studies at different grade levels clarifies the purpose and scope of social studies education at the elementary, middle, and high school levels.

Mehaffy, George L. "Social Studies in World War One: A Period of Transition." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 15 (Winter 1987): 23-32. EJ 357 435.

This article states that World War I served as a catalyst for rapid change in the teaching of history, geography, and current events. Indicators of change were found in professional journals such as *The History Teacher's Magazine*. It concludes that post-World War I social studies was more like our current curriculum than that which existed prior to the War.

Mehaffy, George L. "Social Studies in an Age of Reform: Symbolic and Substantive Change." *International Journal of Social Education* 7 (Fall 1992): 76-82. EJ 467 866.

This article contends that recent efforts in social studies reform have been mostly rhetorical and have not changed day-to-day work of teachers. It argues changes in teaching and learning may be the real reform story of the 1980s and 1990s. It also describes the work of the National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Teaching and Learning and predicts it will have significant impact on the field.

Mehlinger, Howard D. "The National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools: An Example of Politics of Curriculum Reform in the United States." *Social Education* 56 (March 1992): 149-53. EJ 452 225.

This article discusses the recommendations for the change of social studies curricula made by the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools (NCSSS). It suggests that classroom impact of the report will depend on who likes, who opposes, and who is apathetic to the recommendations. It also argues that tradition, state control of public education, and the textbook industry immobilize each other politically.

Metcalf, Fay, and David Jenness. "The National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools: An Overview." *Social Education* 57 (November/December 1990): 429-30. EJ 419 206.

This article provides the background to the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools and its report: "Charting A Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century." It stressed that the commission represents a broad coalition from the social studies and history communities desiring curricular clarification and improved practice. It also surveys the commission's primary decisions, funding, and review process.

Metcalf, Fay. "Revising the Social Studies Curriculum for the Next Decade." *NASSP Bulletin* 75 (January 1991): 7-13. EJ 421 276.

This overview of the recommendations made in the report "Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century" summarizes recommended course content by grade level.

Michigan Council for the Social Studies. *Core Curriculum Outcomes for Elementary Social Studies. Grades K-3.* East Lansing: Michigan Council for the Social Studies, 1991. ED 336 304.

These outlines of core curriculum outcomes for elementary social studies in grades K-3 include the following for each grade level: core curriculum knowledge outcomes, core curriculum skill outcomes, core curriculum democratic values outcomes, and core curriculum civic participation outcomes. For each individual outcome, several examples of learning activities designed to foster the specific outcome are given.

Michigan State Board of Education. *Defining Social Studies Education in Michigan, K-12.* Lansing: Michigan State Board of Education, 1989. ED 312 201.

This document begins by providing some introductory guidelines on constructing a K-12 social studies program and conducting a curriculum program review and then goes on to focus on the goals and objectives for social studies education in Michigan. These are divided into three groups: knowledge, democratic values, and skills. For each of these areas, specific goals and objectives are set out, with a discussion of how they apply to the various grade levels.

Morrissett, Irving, and others. "The SPAN Report: Analysis and Proposals for the 1980s." *Social Education* 44 (November/December 1980): 558-86, 653. EJ 235 284.

Four articles discuss the work completed by the two-year Project SPAN. The first two articles present broad ideas about the current and future status of social studies, the third outlines major recommendations, and the last presents a social roles rationale and framework designed to increase student learning and interest.

Mullins, Sandra L. *Social Studies for the 21st Century: Recommendations of the National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools. ERIC Digest.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1990. ED 329 484.

The National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools was formed in 1987 by the Organization of American Historians, the American Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies to study the state of social studies in the schools and to make recommendations for curricular change. The Commission's curriculum report, "Charting a Course: Social Studies for the 21st Century (1989) is based on an exhaustive examination of the social studies curricula in the past and present. This digest outlines the essential elements of the Commission's curriculum report on goals and general recommendations for the social studies.

Mullins, Sandra. "A Century of Social Studies Curriculum Development." *Louisiana Social Studies Journal* 17 (Fall 1990): 32-36. EJ 433 665.

This article reviews social studies curricula developed for classroom use since the 1890s. It examines six categories of differing recommendations and reveals disparate conceptualizations of what constitutes useful knowledge to attain citizenship objectives. It defines classroom practice as the bottom line, citing findings from recent National Science Foundation studies. It also recommends clarifying useful knowledge for good citizenship in conjunction with classroom teachers.

National Endowment for the Humanities. *National Tests: What Other Countries Expect Their Students to Know.* Washington, DC: National Endowment for the Humanities (NFAH), 1991. ED 338 644.

Several leaders in education have concluded that the United States should have some form of national achievement testing. Such tests are proposed as part of the "America 2000" education strategy. Believing that the experience of other countries will be useful to educators, policymakers, and concerned citizens, the National Endowment for the Humanities provides English examples, in this document, of tests administered in other countries. Tests in the humanities are sampled, because the importance of the humanities is more likely to be overlooked than mathematics and the sciences. The examinations sampled make it clear that other nations are setting very high standards for the humanities. Most advocates of national testing in the United States argue that the tests should demonstrate that students can use the knowledge they have gained (performance tests). It is emphasized that national testing need not entail a national curriculum. Test examples from France, West Germany, United Kingdom, Japan, and the European Schools of the European Community are presented.

Natoli, Salvatore, J., ed. *Strengthening Geography in the Social Studies. National Council for the Social Studies Bulletin No. 81*. Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1988. ED 296 946.

This bulletin is an outgrowth of the work of the Geographic Education National Implementation Project (GENIP), whose purpose is to implement the recommendations contained in the National Council for Geographic Education-Association of American Geographers 1984 publication, *Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools*. The bulletin is an attempt to demonstrate the power of geographical content, including the concepts and skills of geography as they relate to various components of the social studies curriculum.

Nelson, Jack L. "Charting a Course Backwards: A Response to the National Commission's Nineteenth Century Social Studies Program." *Social Education* 54 (November/December 1990): 434-37. EJ 419 208.

This article compares the 1989 National Commission on Social Studies in the Schools' report, "Charting a Course: Social Studies in the 21st Century," to a similar curricular endeavor during the 1930s. It finds that the 1989 version conformist, narrow, prescriptive, overly content oriented, and not reflective of educational research. Because of its academic imperialism and internal inconsistencies, the article contends that the report should be ignored.

Nelson, Murry R. "First Efforts Toward a National Curriculum: The Committee of Ten's Report on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 20 (Summer 1992): 242-62. EJ 461 804.

This article discusses the report of a subcommittee of the Committee of Ten dealing with history, civil government, and the political economy, and describes the makeup of the committee, its goals, and its findings on ways to improve the school curriculum. It also explains that the committee advocated a broad social studies approach to the teaching of history.

Nelson, Murry R. "Social Studies: Something Old, Something New, and All Borrowed." *Social Education* 8 (Fall 1980): 51-64. EJ 237 563.

This article examines the historical roots of major trends of the New Social Studies—social sciences v. social studies, inquiry, ethnic and global perspectives, and future studies. The major objective is to improve social studies by helping social studies classroom teachers become aware of and understand the contributions of these trends to their discipline.

Nelson, Murry R. *The Social Contexts of the Committee on Social Studies Report of 1916.* Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1988. ED 315 329.

No work in social studies has been consistently referred to over the past 75 years as much as "The Social Studies in Secondary Education," Bulletin No. 28 (1916) of the U.S. Bureau of Education. This volume, "Report of the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association," has developed a mystique of its own and inspired tones of reverence when the work is mentioned; yet, few social studies educators have read it. The recent spate of reports on history/geography in the schools places much of the blame for the woeful status of history knowledge on the erosive effect of social studies on history over the past 75 years. The reference is to the 1916 report. The "conventional wisdom" regarding this report needs to be presented and assessed in the light of today's use of that wisdom.

New Jersey State Department of Education. *World History/Cultures Guide.* Trenton, NJ: New Jersey State Department of Education, 1988. ED 312 169.

In 1988-89, a one-year course in world history/cultures was added to the list of courses required for graduation in the state of New Jersey, becoming the third required course in social studies. The course is intended to provide students with historical knowledge to better meet the demands of the world and to make the informed decisions that are so crucial to a democratic way of life. This curriculum guide is designed to stimulate multiple perspectives in the development, modification, and evaluation of such a course. The five curriculum approaches (two examples of each approach are given) are world history, world cultures, world geography, global studies, and international relations.

New York State Social Studies Review and Development Committee. *One Nation, Many Peoples: A Declaration of Cultural Interdependence.* Albany, New York: New York State Department of Education, 1991. ED 338 536.

The committee that produced this report was asked to review existing New York State social studies syllabi and to make recommendations to the Commissioner of Education designed to increase students' understanding of U.S. culture and its history; the cultures, identities, and histories of the diverse groups that comprise U.S. society today; and the cultures, identities, and histories of other people throughout the world. A review of the existing syllabi respecting these concerns found them to be inadequate. The committee also makes recommendations concerning the specific ares of teaching and learning, the State Syllabi, and guidelines for implementation. The report concludes with reflective commentaries by several members of the committee, in which some dissents are registered and in which others expand upon positions that are held by specific committee members.

Newmann, Fred M. "Educational Reform and Social Studies: Implications of Six Reports." *Contemporary Education Review* 3 (Fall 1984): 363-79. EJ 332 441.

Six reports suggesting changes in social studies education are synthesized: (1) The Paideia Proposal, by Adler; (2) High School, by Boyer; (3) A Place Called School, by Goodlad; (4) Horace's Compromise, by Sizer; (5) A Nation At Risk; and (6) Academic Preparation for College by the College Board.

Ohles, John F. "Pioneer Writers of Social Studies Textbooks." *Social Studies* 67 (March/April, 1976): 66-69. EJ 135 206.

The author reviews the content; methods of instruction, and philosophy of selected eighteenth and nineteenth century social studies textbooks. Short biographical sketches of well known authors are also included.

Oregon State Department of Education. *Social Studies: Common Curriculum Goals*. Salem: Oregon State Department of Education, 1990. ED 323 157.

This document defines and provides common curriculum goals in social studies for Oregon public school students. The goals were designed to define what should be taught, while allowing local schools and districts to decide the specific context of instruction. The contents include design, organization, building and implementing a local program, a district-level implementation chart, and common curriculum goals. Ten strands of knowledge are outlined: (1) economic understandings, (2) political understandings, (3) geographic understandings, (4) historical understandings, (5) cultural and social understandings, (6) communications and study skills, (7) thinking/decision - making skills, (8) interpersonal/participation skills, (9) constitution/democratic heritage, and (10) civic values and responsibilities. An evaluation form for the guide concludes the document.

Parker, Walter C. *Renewing the Social Studies Curriculum*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1991. ED 334 114.

This book concerns the art of curriculum deliberation in the field of social studies. Its audience is the local curriculum planning committee. Its themes are democratic education in a multicultural society and challenging lessons on essential learnings. The first chapter discusses the first theme and suggests five essential learnings. The second places curriculum planning in its social settings: school organization, the community, and, broadly, the present North American milieux. The third presents a case study of two curriculum renewal meetings of a school district curriculum planning committee. The fourth presents three general principles to guide curriculum renewal in social studies, an eight-part renewal model, and pitfalls to be avoided. The fifth describes the typical social studies curriculum in the U.S. today along with alternatives, issues, and trends. The final chapter advocates and examines two trends: authentic assessments and in-depth study on a limited number of essential topics.

Patrick, John J. "The Bradley Commission in the Context of 1980s Curriculum Reform in the Social Studies." *History Teacher* 23 (November 1989): 37-48. EJ 409 564.

This article discusses the Bradley Commission on History in School recommendations as part of the 1980s curriculum reform movement. It examines the problem of too many social science disciplines competing for space within the limited core curriculum reform and concludes with further questions raised by the Bradley Commission's recommendations.

Patrick, John J. *Social Studies Reform Reports. ERIC Digest.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1990. ED 322 021.

The 1980s were years of concern about the curricula in elementary and secondary schools. Throughout the decade, educators in the social studies, as well as in other fields of knowledge, formed curriculum study groups to assess the status quo and to recommend improvements in widely distributed reports. This ERIC Digest examines: (1)four social studies curriculum reform reports of 1989; (2) the treatment of geography and history in these reports; (3) challenges to the expanding environments curriculum; and (4) implementation of recommendations for curriculum reform.

Patrick, John J. *Achievement of Knowledge by High School Students in Core Subjects of the Social Studies. ERIC Digest.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1991. ED 329 486.

During 1990, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reported findings about elementary and secondary school students' knowledge of U.S. history, geography, and civics. In 1988, the Joint Council on Economic Education reported findings from its national study of high school students' knowledge of economics. The synthesis of findings in this digest are restricted to 11th and 12th graders, students who have completed most, if not all, of the social studies curriculum. The overall achievement of these upper level high school students in the core subjects of the social studies is dismal. Factors that tend to produce better performances are discussed.

Patrick, John J. *Student Achievement in Core Subjects of the School Curriculum. ERIC Digest.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1991. ED 332 930.

In February 1990, the President of the United States and the 50 state governors proclaimed a set of six national goals to prompt profound improvements in schools and student achievement by the year 2000. These six goals reflect widely held concerns that most people have not been receiving the kind of education they need to meet the challenges of twenty-first century life.

Quigley, Charles N., and others. *CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education.* Calabasas, CA: Center for Civic Education, 1991. ED 340 654.

CIVITAS is a curriculum framework that sets forth a set of national goals to be achieved in a civic education curriculum, primarily for K-12 public and private schools. It is a framework that proposes to specify the knowledge and skills needed by citizens to perform their roles in U.S. democracy. There are two major sections in the framework. It begins with a rationale that explains the basic philosophy, purpose, and nature of the framework. The other major section is a statement of goals and objectives that civic education should foster. This section is divided into three parts: Civic Virtue, Civic Participation, and Civic Knowledge and Intellectual Skills.

Ravitch, Diane. *The Changing History-Social Science Curriculum: A Booklet for Parents.* Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1990. ED 328 468.

The lack of U.S. students' knowledge of history and geography has been portrayed on television and in the newspapers as a national problem. California's public schools are taking significant steps to ensure that all students have a well developed understanding of their society and the world. This guide for parents answers some of the most commonly asked questions about the 1987 California History-Social Science Framework (for K-12) and suggests concrete ways in which parents can help their children succeed in school. A literature list for parents and children (K-12) is included.

Reinhartz, Dennis, and Judy Reinhartz. *Geography Across the Curriculum.* Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1990. ED 332 885.

Geography should be infused into existing elementary and secondary school curricula rather than added as another separate subject at various levels. That is the thrust of this monograph, which suggests ways to integrate relevant geographic knowledge, concepts, and skills into specific elementary and secondary subjects. The relationship between geography and history, social studies, foreign languages, English/language arts, the arts, science, mathematics, business, and computer-based instruction is examined. A fifty-five-item bibliography is included, as is an extensive resource list.

Research and Development in the Social Studies: New Curriculum Models for History and the Social Sciences. Cambridge, MA: Educational Services, Inc., 1965. ED 178 411.

Four essays discuss plans for and experimental stages of a 1965 social studies curriculum development program for grades 4-12, emphasizing rationale and educational objectives, and offering an overview of content and methodology.

Risinger, C. Frederick. *Trends in K-12 Social Studies. ERIC Digest.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1992. ED 351 278.

Drawing on contemporary research literature, recently developed curriculum guides, and blue-ribbon reports, this digest reviews 10 contemporary trends in K-12 social studies in the United States. These trends are: (1) History, history, and more history; (2) More geography, too; (3) Using literature to teach social studies; (4) Focus on the multicultural nature of American society; (5) Renewed attention to western civilization; (6) Renewed attention to ethics and values; (7) Increased attention to the role of religion; (8) Attention to contemporary and controversial issues; (9) Covering issues in depth; and (10) Writing, writing, and more writing.

Risinger, C. Frederick. *The Core Ideas of "Lessons from History: Essential Understandings and Historical Perspectives Students Should Acquire." ERIC Digest.* Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1993. ED 363 527.

This digest discusses "Lessons from History," the report of the National Center for History in the Schools. This digest lists and discusses the major themes presented in "Lessons from History," namely: (1) the development and changing character of human societies; (2) the economic and technological development of societies; (3) peoples' understanding of themselves, their place in the universe, and the quest for meaning; (4) the development of political theories and democracy. The digest concludes by describing seven principles found by the report to be associated with effective teaching and learning of history.

Robinson, Paul. *Reinterpreting the History of the Social Studies.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the College and University Faculty Association, National Council for the Social Studies, 1977. ED 152 606.

While pointing out some of the criticism being leveled at the social studies in recent years, this paper suggests a need to reassess the historical development of the social studies as part of the public school curriculum. It argues that such a reassessment in needed to resolve present difficulties and effect future possibilities. The period 1890-1920 is crucial to examine.

Robinson, Paul. "The Conventional Historians of the Social Studies." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 8 (Fall 1980): 65-87. EJ 237 564.

This article explores the historiography of the social studies curriculum in the United States since the depression as presented by three educators who were most responsible for establishing a widely accepted social studies framework—Henry Johnson, Rolle Tyron, and Edgar Wesley. Topics discussed include characteristics of their view of the development of the social studies and the adequacy of this perspective today.

Saunders, Phillip, and others. *Master Curriculum Guide in Economics: A Framework for Teaching the Basic Concepts*. 2nd ed. New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1984. ED 247 198.

Intended for curriculum developers, this revised Framework presents a set of basic concepts for teaching K-12 economics. The revision reflects the change and development which the field of economics has undergone and includes improvements suggested by users of the first edition. The purpose of teaching economics is to impart a general understanding of how our economy works and to improve economic decision making by students through the use of an orderly, reasoned approach. Chapters I, II, and III provide a brief introduction to the publication, discuss the elements of economic understanding, and list and describe some basic economic concepts. Chapter IV discusses the broad social goals that seem most important in the United States today, the problem of trade-offs among goals, and the role of self-interest and personal values. Chapter V illustrates the use of a decision-making model with two economic issues involving public policy. The concluding chapter discusses the grade placement of the economic concepts.

Saxe, David Warren. "Salient Dates and Events of the Social Studies, 1857-1940." *International Journal of Social Education* 6 (Fall 1991): 11-18. EJ 446 492.

This article supplies a list of important dates and events in the development of social studies as an educational discipline. It focuses on the social studies prototype and the foundations of the field before the 1916 Report by the Committee on the Social Studies and includes details about significant organizations, individuals, publications, and reports.

Saxe, David Warren. "An Introduction to the Seminal Social Welfare and Efficiency Prototype: The Founders of 1916 Social Studies." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 20 (Spring 1992): 156-78. EJ 456 511.

This article discusses the 1916 Committee on Social Studies report. It describes the preparation of the report, who was involved, and some of the social welfare and efficiency ideas of its authors. It also observes that the report culminated in the introduction of the social studies into the U.S. secondary school curriculum.

Saxe, David Warren. "Framing a Theory for Social Studies Foundations." *Review of Educational Research* 62 (Fall 1992): 259-77. EJ 453 782.

Practitioners and theorists do not articulate the purposes, theory, and practices of social studies adequately because they lack a basic understanding of the historical background. Examples of myth that hinder research and the development of social studies as a field are given as the field's history is traced.

Shermis, S. Samuel. "World War I—Catalyst for the Creation of the Social Studies." *Social Studies* 80 (January/February 1989): 11-15. EJ 386 425.

This article discusses the conditions present during and after World War I which led to the creation of social studies as a discrete component in the U.S. school curriculum. It describes these conditions as a public awareness of impending crisis, perception of citizenship as a major social concern, alternatives to traditional citizenship education, and professional organizational activity.

Shermis, S. Samuel. "The Past, Present, and Future of the Social Studies." *Louisiana Social Studies Journal* 17 (Fall 1990): 10-14. EJ 433 661.

This article considers Robert Barr, James Barth, and Sam Shermis' three social studies patterns: citizenship transmission, social science, reflective inquiry. Despite calls for reform and use of reflective inquiry rhetoric, this article argues that social studies teachers serve as content transmitters rather than learning facilitators. It also suggests computers may help change the role of teachers, but only if teachers begin analyzing their assumptions, beliefs, and teaching practices.

Singleton, H. Wells. "Problems of Democracy: The Revisionist Plan for Social Studies Education." *Theory and Research in Social Education* 8 (Fall 1980): 89-103. EJ 237 565.

This article assesses the role played by revisionists in development of the social studies curriculum and reviews a movement in which revisionists consistently attempted to promote citizenship education through the problems of democracy course offered in high schools throughout the United States from 1916 to 1970.

Social Studies K-12. Teacher Handbook. Raleigh, NC: North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1992. ED 360 232.

This curriculum guide for North Carolina social studies teachers stresses the fact the social studies traditionally has accepted the dominant burden of preparing young people to inherit the right and the responsibility of effective citizenship. It is the single curriculum area whose subject matter is the entirety of human experience. The sequence for social studies described in this handbook defines in general terms the subject matter to be emphasized in social studies at each grade. The general description is intended to guide local curriculum coordinators as they select specific content for each level and course.

Staten, Theresa, and others. *Curriculum Review Handbook for Social Studies Education in Michigan.* Lansing: Michigan State Board of Education, 1988. ED 307 197.

This document presents a ten-step action plan to guide educators through a review process designed to aid them in the improvement and enhancement of the social studies curriculum for grades K-12. Curriculum review and development are continuous tasks which extend over a span of several years and should be continuous processes. Six appendices offer models and procedures for implementation of the steps, as well as a policy on teaching controversial issues.

Stoltman, Joseph P. *Geography Education for Citizenship*. Bloomington, IN: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1990. ED 322 081.

Through its approach to knowledge and issues, geography education makes a significant contribution to the development of citizenship and citizenship competencies. The ways that geography education has contributed to citizenship education as the two have developed during this century are examined. It is argued that students who study geography should develop competencies in three areas: (1) literacy in the subject matter of geography; (2) the ability to apply geography, its fundamental themes, skills, and perspectives to a wide range of political, economic, social, and environmental issues; and (3) knowledge to help students actively participate as citizens in their local communities, the nation, and the world. Each of the seven chapters concludes with a list of references.

Study Commission on Global Education. *The United States Prepares for Its Future: Global Perspectives in Education*. New York: Global Perspectives in Education, Inc., 1987. ED 283 758.

This report addresses the question of what knowledge and skills should be taught to citizens whose judgment is the ultimate source of policy in a democratic nation. The report recommends the adoption of new goals for school programs, changes in curriculum offerings and in teacher education, creation of curriculum development centers, greater cooperation among schools and universities, and increased support and cooperation from the private sector. The report further recommends that every subject area in primary and secondary schools be approached from a global perspective, and that four curricular areas be emphasized: (1) an understanding of the world as a series of interrelated systems; (2) increased attention to the development of world civilizations as they relate to the history of the United States; (3) greater attention to diversity of cultural patterns; and (4) more training in domestic and international policy analysis. To initiate a global studies program, school districts and states should emphasize existing goals pertaining to citizenship education and global understanding, and teachers should be involved in the planning and implementation of the process. Finally, the report outlines a scope and sequence of courses leading to global awareness by students and recommends appropriate materials for the courses. Appendices include a summary of recommendations of related reports, some statistical data on interdependence, an outline of the kinds of global education courses offered or required in selected states, a selected materials list, and a list of relevant curriculum development centers.

Superka, Douglas P., and others. "The Current and Future Status of the Social Studies." *Social Education* 44 (May 1980): 362-69. EJ 222 587.

This article presents a progress report on Project SPAN. The purpose of the project is to examine the current status of the social studies, desired states of the social studies, and recommendations for achieving those desired states.

Task Force on International Education. *America in Transition: The International Frontier.* Washington, DC: National Governors' Association, 1989. ED 316 447.

More than ever, U.S. economic well-being is intertwined with that of other countries through expanding international trade, financial markets, and investments. National security, and even world stability, depend upon U.S. understanding of and communication with other countries. Therefore, international education must be an integral part of the education of every student. This report highlights individual examples of worthy international education programs at all levels from across the country. These pockets of progress must be nurtured and expanded until they grow into a national commitment to international education. State governors must take the lead in creating an international focus for the U.S. educational system at all levels. Critical to the success of this effort will be the involvement of a broad coalition including teachers, school administrators and board members, legislators, university/college presidents and faculty, and the business community.

Task Force on Social Studies in the Middle School. *Social Studies in the Middle School.* Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1990. ED 340 646.

This task force report is designed to focus attention on the young adolescent learner and provide direction for developing appropriate and meaningful social studies instruction for the middle school. Schools at the middle level characteristically focus on the unique developmental needs of young adolescents. A number of these needs are listed, in physical, social-emotional, and intellectual categories. It is recommended that the social studies curriculum be designed and implemented with the characteristics of middle-level learners in mind.

Titus, Charles. "The History of a Quest: Defining the Social Studies." *Louisiana Social Studies Journal* 17 (Fall 1990): 3-6. EJ 433 659.

This article traces the elusive search for a social studies definition since 1916. It explains the debate over social studies as social science or as selective use of knowledge to promote citizenship. It attributes social studies' indeterminate focus to its objective of reflecting social reality and suggests definition should recognize social studies as a field of applied knowledge responsive to changing forces.

United States History and Geography: Making a New Nation. Course Models for the History-Social Science Framework. Grade 5. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1991. ED 354 202.

This publication is a response to teachers' requests for practical assistance in implementing the history and social science framework for California's public schools. The document sets out resources that are useful in teaching U.S. history and geography for fifth grade students.

Virginia State Board of Education. *Voter Education Program: A Guidebook of Teaching Strategies and Resources.* Richmond: Virginia State Board of Education, 1991. ED 334 095.

This document is a guidebook containing a sequence of learning strategies to each facts and concepts of voter education. Strategies are grouped into four grade divisions: primary (K-3), intermediate (4-6), secondary (7-9), and high school (10-12). Each grade section is organized into the following order: introduction, strategy, major idea, learning objectives, teaching strategies, evaluation, teaching aids, vocabulary, lesson critique, and summary. A concluding section contains a bibliography; materials available from the State Board of Elections; a resource list; maps of congressional, senatorial, and Virginia house of delegates districts along with their locations; and a guide to voting in Virginia.

Virginia State Department of Education. *Social Studies Standards of Learning: Objectives for Virginia Public Schools.* Richmond: Virginia State Department of Education, 1989. ED 316 466.

The standards in this document resulted from a statewide effort to identify a scope and sequence of content, concepts, skills, and attitudes in social studies for grades K-12. The goals embodied in the standards include (1) providing experiences that enable students to participate in society effectively and responsibly; (2) assisting students in understanding basic democratic ideals and values that affect decision making in public and private life; (3) offering a framework of knowledge and skills to assist students in understanding themselves and society and to serve as a basis for continuous learning in history and the social sciences; and (4) assisting students in acquiring concepts and problem-solving skills that foster rational solutions to problems encountered in everyday life.

Walstad, William, and John C. Soper. *A Report Card on the Economic Literacy of U.S. High School Students.* New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1988. ED 310 055.

A study of over three thousand U.S. high school students who took the Test of Economic Literacy (TEL) in 1986 reveals a lack of basic understanding in the four basic TEL concept clusters (fundamental economics, microeconomics, macroeconomics, and international economics). The TEL was administered pre- and posttest where students were enrolled in one of four types of courses: basic economics, "consumer economics," social studies with economics, and social studies without economics. Students in the economics courses did show significant improvement (+7.5 percent) after the TEL posttest examination while the others did not. Regression analysis was used to identify the effects of variables such as student background and environment or teacher and course preparation. Students in districts that participated in the Developmental Economic Education Program (DEEP), sponsored by the Joint Council on Economic Education, scored higher than other students.

Walstad, William B., and John C. Soper, eds. *Effective Economic Education in the Schools.* New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1991. ED 332 904.

The Developmental Economic Education Program (DEEP) was launched in 1964 by the Joint Council on Economic Education as an experimental program in three school districts. By 1989 there were 1,836 school districts enrolled in DEEP, covering some 39 percent of the precollege student population. This book tells the story of DEEP, an effort to improve the economics education curriculum by involving teachers, administrators, universities, and businesses in a curriculum change partnership. This current look at the DEEP experience is divided into five major parts.

Whelan, Michael. "James Harvey Robinson, the New History, and the 1916 Social Studies Report." *History Teacher* 24 (February 1991): 191-202. EJ 440 293.

This article answers critics of the 1916 Social Studies Report and stresses its continuity with earlier, more widely favored curricular reports. It also discusses the influence of James Harvey Robinson's new history, with its focus on the whole of society rather than just political and military events. In addition, it urges a continuing synthesis of history and the social sciences.

Wong, Suk Ying. "The Evolution of Social Science Instruction, 1900-86: A Cross-National Study." *Sociology of Education* 64 (January 1991): 33-47. EJ 430 548.

This cross-national study examines how social science, social studies, and civics instruction have evolved in public education. It finds that countries frequently adapt social science curricula independent of local conditions. It also suggests that this produces a homogeneity of curricula over time and national boundaries.

Working Papers from Project SPAN. Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1982. ED 218 202.

The papers in this volume represent the personal observations, interpretations, and opinions of consultants who worked on Project SPAN. The project reviewed and analyzed the current state of K-12 social studies in order to form a basis for recommendations for future directions that might be taken to improve social studies.

Zilversmit, Arthur. "The Bradley Commission and American History." *History Teacher* 23 (November 1989): 49-52. EJ 409 565.

This article discusses the Organization of American Historians (OAH) endorsement of the Bradley Commission on History in Schools recommendations. It identifies a gap in the OAH's support of precollegiate teaching, and urges the OAH to take an active role in improving precollegiate teaching. It also considers why the OAH should support the Bradley Commission and suggests how the OAH can work with precollegiate teachers.

Appendix

UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION
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THE TEACHING OF COMMUNITY CIVICS

PREPARED BY A SPECIAL COMMITTEE OF THE
COMMISSION ON THE REORGANIZATION OF
SECONDARY EDUCATION NATIONAL
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CONTENTS.

Page.
Letter of transmittal 5
Preface 7
PART I: AIMS AND METHODS IN TEACHING COMMUNITY CIVICS 9
    Who is the good citizen? 9
    Stages in developing good citizenship 9
    What is community civics? 11
    Place of community civics in the school program 11
    Specific aims of community civics 12
    Elements of welfare suggested as topics 12
    Method of teaching community civics 13

Application of principles to conduct 18
PART II: SUGGESTED TREATMENT OF THE ELEMENTS OF WELFARE 20
Health 20
Protection of life and property 24
Recreation 26
Education 28
Civic beauty 31
Wealth 33
Communication 37
Transportation 39
Migration 41
Charities 42
Correction 46
How governmental agencies are conducted 48
How governmental agencies are financed 49
How voluntary agencies are conducted and financed 50
PART III: BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SUGGESTIONS 51
Textbooks 51
Source materials 51
Reference texts 52
Laboratory material 53
References on method 54

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Dr. Nelson has been awarded three Fulbrights (two of which he accepted). One was a Senior Lectureship to Iceland in 1983, where he was a professor at the University of Iceland and a Senior Lectureship to Norway in 1990-91, where he was attached to the Ministry of Church and Education as Roving Instructor of American Studies.

He has published over 100 articles, reviews chapters, and books, including *Children and Social Studies*, *The Future of the Social Studies*, and *Law in the Curriculum*. His work has appeared in *Social Education*, *Theory and Research in Social Education*, *Curriculum Inquiry*, *Journal of Popular Culture*, and *The Social Studies*.

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He is a member of the National Council for the Social Studies, the Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies, the Society for the Study of Curriculum History, and the History of Education Society.

"My theme is a very simple one. It is that, in teaching the social studies, we should emphasize decision making as against mere remembering. We should emphasize decision making at two levels: at the level of deciding what a group of descriptive data means, how these data may be summarized or generalized, what principles they suggest; and also decision making at the level of policy determination, which requires a synthesis of facts, principles, and values usually not all found on one side of any question."

Shirley H. Engle
"Decision Making: The Heart of
Social Studies Instruction,"
Social Education
(November 1960), page 301.
